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The Social Studies

VOLUME XXXVIII, NUMBER 5

MAY, 1947

Middletown's Split Personality

FREDERICK MAYER

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Middletown is a city of about 50,000 inhabitants in Indiana, one of the innumerable average-sized cities of the United States. Its ideals, beliefs and customs form a cross-section of America. The dual personality of Middletown, as indicated in the study by the Lynds,¹ is a clue to the dual personality of American life, of a conflict between ideal and actuality, between business and religion, and between the past and the present.

Middletown can best be understood by the things it opposes. Middletown is suspicious of all new ideas that question fundamental institutions. Its watchword is that one should follow others and among the virtues it glorifies, loyalty is extremely important. While Middletown emphasizes the importance of freedom in religious matters, economic toleration has lessened. The favorite adjectives (most meaningful) in Middletown language are common, wholesome, sound, and steady; they all stand for adherence to the old group practices.

No wonder that Middletown is governed by tradition. Unlike European cities, its traditions reach back for only a few decades instead of for many centuries; but their influence is just as powerful. While Middletown does not discourage new ideas when it comes to technology and machinery, it fights new inventions

that deal with the state, the church, and the family. It asks: "Why change a government that worked for Lincoln and Washington?" "Why interfere with the natural order of laws?" Often it encourages a *laissez faire* attitude and regards social processes as mysterious parts of political magic. What is most disturbing, perhaps, is the development of a definite caste system. Negroes and non-Protestants are regarded as being definitely inferior, although they may be admired as individuals. Middletown citizens may say: "He is a good nigger," but when it comes to consideration of his race, prejudice will rule. The dominant business class of Middletown thus lives in exclusive districts and has exclusive clubs which will not admit Negroes and Jews.

Middletown is suspicious of nonconformists. Social planners, intellectuals, professors—unless they teach such practical subjects as advertising and merchandising and are members of the Rotary—pacifists, socialists and communists are all regarded as strange people who want to interfere with the natural workings of American government. The belief is that their ideas are foreign and entirely subversive. The strange thing is that while Middletown values education, it distrusts its professors; while it is proud of its art museums and intellectual institutions, it is suspicious of intellectuals; while it professes a fervent belief in peace, it is scornful of pacifists.

¹Robert S. Lynd and Helen Merrell Lynd, *Middletown in Transition* (Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1937).

To understand Middletown one must be able to analyze its political and economic faith. It believes that change is slow and that any change that is not orderly is bound to be harmful. Most evils will correct themselves according to the editorials of Middletown newspapers. The men's clubs, the numerous organizations for the enlightenment of women, all declare that optimism is a sacred duty. This attitude of optimism was even maintained during the dark days of the depression when speakers would say that the worst days had passed and point to a bright new Utopia. They were able to say that depressions are the result of mysterious weaknesses in the economic system and that nothing much can be done about them for they are like death and taxes. But the popular prophets were certain that recovery was bound to come.

The economic system of Middletown, it was supposed, was governed by absolute laws. These laws had been stated most succinctly by a high priest of capitalism, Adam Smith, whose *Wealth of Nations* had become the Koran of the Middletown ruling class. The law of supply and demand corresponded to the law of Karma in Mohammedanism, and competition, according to the devotees of this religion, was as strong an incentive as a pilgrimage to Mecca.

Individualism was found to be still strong in Middletown. "Every man for himself" was the motto of the business class and yet fair dealing was to be practiced. Editorial writers did not think that it was a contradiction to emphasize the survival of the fittest on the one hand and to write about the necessity of Christian rules on the other hand.

Success was the magic Utopia sought by all classes of Middletown. Success was usually interpreted in material terms: a big bank account, a house in an exclusive district, and above all an expensive motor car. Middletown still believed that any man with ability could achieve success. Thus the spirit of initiative was kept alive in a society where class lines were strictly drawn.

The editorial writers of Middletown adhered to the Calvinistic belief that rich men were more intelligent and industrious than the poor, notwithstanding the fact that many of the wealthy class were playboys and playgirls who

had inherited their wealth and who enjoyed a very gay life with the money their parents and grandparents had accumulated. If a man did not succeed in Middletown it was his own fault, for he was either stupid, lazy, or he wasted his money. It was thought that rich people should be charitable, but if government and social welfare agencies undertook works of charity their efforts were likely to be demoralizing, and many sound citizens were afraid that such government interference would lead to Communism. When Middletown had to accept large donations from the federal government for relief, and when a WPA program was in existence, many regarded such measures as temporary expedients which should be abandoned as soon as the emergency was over.

Loudly and frequently Middletown newspapers proclaimed their faith in the kindness of the average citizen. They said that any man would share his shirt if necessary when a real emergency arose. President Truman shared the belief of Middletown when he appealed to the patriotism and decency of American citizens after he vetoed the OPA bill. Yet there were many who took advantage of the plight of their fellow citizens and prices reached an all-time high.

Middletown emphasized patriotism. In the schools there were numerous courses dealing with American social institutions and history, and in addition there were two patriotic courses dealing with the Middletown tradition. Newspapers said that Middletown was a much better city to live in than a big metropolis like New York with its foreign ways, its mad money making, immorality, and radicalism. Most of the citizens of Middletown had no doubt whatever that American ways were the best in the world and that foreigners were inferior. Their knowledge of the outside world came mainly through newspapers which were supposed to give them facts. Most of the newspapers, however, adhered to an "America first" policy.

Middletown believed in high tariffs and low taxes. It believed that corruption can best be solved by electing better men to office, yet in the primaries only about 30 per cent of the voters participated, usually for candidates they did not know.

Middletown had a naive faith in laws. Just

as in other cities, numerous laws were passed to regulate morals, traffic, and red-light districts. Editorial writers proposed a very original solution for the decrease of crime. They said that heavier sentences should be imposed and more people should be put in jail. It seems that they had never read a scientific treatise on criminology.

The citizens of Middletown were very emphatic in maintaining that the family was a fundamental and sacred institution, yet every year the rate of divorces increased. Loudly the moralists would proclaim that monogamy was the only respectable and Christian system known to society. Middletown believed that women are better (purer) than men. There could be no real adjustment between the sexes as long as men regarded women as frail, sensitive, rather unworldly creatures, and thought that they themselves were more practical and energetic than the feminine sex. The men of Middletown believed that most women could not be expected to understand public problems, which meant, of course, that men were to govern the city. In theory women were to be equal but in practice the men of Middletown still had most of the privileges and opportunities.

Middletown thus still adhered to a patriarchal pattern. Men were to be the heads of the family, married women were to stay at home; yet many married women needed an outside job to support their families and they wanted a career because housework was too boring for them. It was thought to be the proper thing for a married couple to have children and "to give up things for their children," which of course spoiled many of them. Middletown was quite tolerant when it came to the rebellion of children, for it thought that youth was a period of fumbling when one had impractical ideas regarding the world. But it knew that when the children grew up and had families of their own, they would think in the same manner as their parents.

Education, according to Middletown standards, was to teach the facts of past experience. Teachers thus were regarded as distributors of encyclopedic information. Teachers were to educate the children without questioning the fundamental institutions, that is, they

were to transmit knowledge without really making their pupils think. While Middletown believed in the values of a college education, it thought that too much book learning would not fit a person for life and that after graduating from college one had to come into contact with the rough and tumble of business life to unlearn some of the abstract theories of the classroom. Since education was regarded both as an intellectual process and as an aid to social advancement, the lower class families of Middletown would sacrifice a great deal to send their children to college. Unfortunately when the depression came, many college graduates could not find jobs. Some gasoline station chains demanded that their operators should be college graduates. The irony of the situation is apparent: four years of college with Plato, Aquinas, plane geometry, Bach, and Shakespeare to learn how to handle a pump in a gasoline station.

Middletown in its evaluation of leisure time activities believed that men should engage in "red blooded" physical sports and that "culture and things like that" are more fitting for women. This equalized the tastes of most of the citizens of Middletown. Even if they had gone to college they would read the same comic strips, be thrilled by the same gangster movies, and be hugely entertained by Donald Duck. Women's clubs were the patrons of culture and art. They heard speakers on India and China, the furnitures of the eighteenth century, the poetry of Swinburne, and they grasped the fundamentals of international politics after hearing a lecture on Soviet Russia.

Just as American democracy represented the highest political form of government and just as American business symbolized economic perfection, so Christianity was regarded by Middletown as the highest type of religion. Such activities as church-going and praying were valued highly, although some of the more sophisticated citizens regarded these as nuisances. The editorial writers were unanimous in their opinion that Jesus was the most perfect man who had ever lived. They would quote his sayings constantly without realizing the contradiction in their own statements, for His doctrine of love certainly was contrary to the spirit of Darwinism which dominated most

of the institutions of Middletown. God was regarded by Middletown as a sort of president of a big corporation, a very busy executive who could not bother with the small things of life but, who, when it came to important matters, might interfere. With the spirit of optimism so dominant, the idea of a pleasant heaven dominated over the terrors of hell. Only the more fundamentalist revival cults of Middletown talked about the agonies of hell-fire and the certainty of eternal punishment. Ministers

were regarded by the solid citizens as being rather impractical people who could not understand the intricate processes of government and politics. If they tried to interfere in political questions they were likely to be censured by the community.

In conclusion, it can be said that Middletown's split personality is symbolic of the confusion and cultural lag of the post-war period in the United States.

Equilibrium of Social Studies Teachers

V. J. BURKE

Arlington, Massachusetts

The bewilderment of this post-war world, or interbellum period, as some feel it may well be, strikes no one more directly in an educational sense than the social studies teacher.

The lack of mathematical precision in the social sciences is often mentioned to explain a certain lack of progress, but in these days the social studies teacher has other things to worry about. The formula for smashing the atom, though a matter of higher mathematics, has had a more upsetting effect on secondary school social studies than on other secondary school subjects, even mathematics.

American and European history, problems in American government, elementary economics and world geography are today, to borrow an expression increasingly used in descriptions of atomic research, in a state of unstable equilibrium. Depending perhaps on the day of the week, we refer to the Great Powers as the Big Five, the Big Four, the Big Three, the Big Two—and we are waiting for some enterprising journalist to start talking about the Big One. Even our mathematics has to develop speed to keep up with changing diplomatic situations.

It may sound controversial to say it, but the revolutionary changes going on outside the classroom bear much more heavily on social studies teachers than on other members of the faculty. On the secondary school level teachers of such subjects as languages and mathematics

can use much the same content and methods that they have been using for many years. Relatively little extra study is needed to keep abreast of developments in their fields compared to the cataclysmic changes rapidly taking place in most of the areas of the social studies.

It is true that occasionally a teacher of the social studies does not spend much time trying to keep up with the latest books that concern students in courses in history, government or economics. Such a teacher may feel that the task is impossible anyhow, for no one can keep ahead of the printing press even in his own field when that field is dynamically changing. Yet, without question, most social studies teachers who wish to do even a fair job must feel strongly inclined to become reasonably familiar with much of the new literature in their fields.

An example of a compelling new interest is the vast amount of important material relating to the United Nations, particularly UNESCO. It is true that a veteran instructor in the social studies could give a profitable course very much as outlined before the United Nations came into existence. But unlike the algebra teacher who can very properly use the same text, content and methods he has used annually for the past few years, the social studies teacher must feel the need of more frequent and more drastic revision of courses.

Chapter 15 in the French grammar has to

do with the present indicative of the verb *donner*. Ten years ago it was the same. Changes incident to World War II and the fall of France with the endless complications thereof are more of a headache to the social studies teacher than to the French teacher as far as teaching is concerned.

Chapter 10 in the algebra book tells how to multiply binomials with unlike signs. They did it the same way when the "math" teacher started as a cadet for \$600 a year in the mid-thirties, armed with a college degree, a very high scholastic record, and a reputation for precise living. This teacher can jog along in the same manner now as before the invention of the atomic bomb. The mathematical feat of producing atomic energy presents more difficulties for the social studies teacher than for the teacher of mathematics.

The teacher of German does not feel obliged to direct the students in their task of finding the causes and effects of Nazism. The teacher of Spanish or Italian does not have to bother much about the leaders, governments, peoples, and recent history of Italy and Spain. Let us not mention China, Japan, India, Mexico, South America, Palestine, the Balkans, Russia, the Byrd Expedition, the New Deal and the Newer Deal, the labor-capital situation, types and methods of propaganda, juvenile delinquency, modern advertising, problems of social communication through movies, radio and the press, and hundreds of other little tidbits of information the social studies teacher, from a professional standpoint, is supposed to be especially well-posted on.

I have taught languages (French, Latin and English) and mathematics for several years each. I know it is much easier to be a B plus teacher in any of those subjects than to be a B plus teacher of social studies. Unless the social studies teacher puts in a great deal of extra effort he feels he is walking bowlegged on a treadmill. Even a social studies teacher whose class work has been narrowed down to a course in American colonial history feels swamped with new books and new viewpoints on the subject.

Of course the teaching of history involves much more than a memory for dates. Ignorance of government, economics, sociology, psychol-

ogy and various other matters will make it impossible to be a good teacher of history. Teachers of other subjects may contend that they too have the burden of keeping posted on related subjects. But it seems too clear for argument that the nature of the social studies and their capacity for change and development, necessarily place an incomparable load upon the instructor who aims to be professional about that many-visaged discipline.

Ten years ago, when I first began to give swimming lessons in the social studies ocean, I went to hear a Boston lecture by a Marxist instructor from a leading university. Not being a comrade myself, I was nevertheless listening attentively in a hall full of comrades, with a ten-foot picture of Stalin above the stage, and other large pictures of Marx and Lenin on the two side walls. The instructor spoke on the topic: "Seeing the World Through Marxian Spectacles." His final inspiring message to the gaping comrades was that Marxian spectacles enabled a man to see *all* branches of the arts and sciences in their true perspective and exact inter-relationships—a thing of course denied the common man under Capitalism. A glow suffused the faces of the comrades as they marched out, convinced that within the grasp of their clenched fists was the open road to divine omniscience—beginning with *Das Kapital*.

That incident made me feel that perhaps the many-sided interests of a mere "specialist" in the social studies constituted too small an ambition. The Marxist optician stood ready to fit one with the spectacles of omniscience—the most direct, time-saving road to knowledge. Yet, somehow, a reactionary, illiberal (shall I leave out the word Fascist?) streak in me prevented me from glowing, either pink or red, as I left the unholy of unholies. For a brief moment I had felt that perhaps the social studies teacher was not trying, after all, to juggle too many subjects on the educational stage. But that brief moment made me feel that humility, long regarded as a standby of wise men, was hardly the stock in trade of the Marxists.

For most secondary school teachers who, unfortunately, must plod along without the aid of magic spectacles, it requires about all their energy to keep their heads above water, even

when the water does not rise perceptibly. For the social studies teacher, the waters are rising rapidly all the time and swirling madly about. What the social studies teacher needs in such a situation is not a set of such spectacles but some kind of life-raft. He must keep in the stream even if he finds he must at times ride the rapids.

The last teacher to isolate himself from the convulsions of modern social institutions is the social studies instructor. He is not likely to find a placid routine that will remain usable year after year without much outside study and inside renovation. He isn't likely to ensconce himself in an ivory tower of familiar, old-fashioned but ever useful design. To do even a mediocre job he has to keep moving, even if it is hardly more than treading water.

With all this more or less chaotic change in his subject matter, the social studies teacher needs to establish and maintain his own mental equilibrium. He cannot let himself get emotional the same day over the special tragedies of peoples in a dozen parts of the

globe. He cannot let himself appear too pessimistic just because daily news bulletins, analytical magazine articles, and the flood of distressing books would make pessimism an intellectually-defensible position. He feels a special sympathy for the indescribable suffering of hundreds of millions of people in the post-war world, and their agonizing fight for health, life, and decent government—but despite his special obligation of being informed on these things, he needs to preserve the poise and balance students expect to find in him, even in bitterly controverted matters.

All in all, an instructor in any of the social studies, because his work necessitates much additional daily preparation, deserves special attention from school administrators. Not that he is a more capable or more industrious person on the average, but in order that he may do a better job some consideration should be shown him. Perhaps fewer class hours, fewer pupils or other special compensation would help to balance things.

Planning the History Lesson: A Reappraisal

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Let us recall that history means problems to be investigated, analyzed and solved. The teacher must ever bear in mind that the lesson for each period means the solving of a problem. If this phase of lesson planning is overlooked, the history lesson will be a disappointment to teacher and class.

We believe that the problem should be stated usually in the form of a question. In this form it will arrest the pupil's attention and cause him to realize that the question must be answered.

American history, from the early period of discovery, exploration and colonization to the present, lends itself very readily to problem forming and solving. For example, the growth and development of democracy is the central theme of our history.

In assigning the lesson, the teacher must exercise much care. There must be a definite method and system in planning the work. It is so easy to state that the history lesson will cover the next five or ten pages. That kind of an assignment is meaningless and is a very crude mechanical plan.

It must be remembered that history assignments must be grouped around the problem to be discussed or, in other words, each assignment must be the problem to be discussed. It may be that the text is easily adapted to the problems you have planned for the class. In any event, the teacher who knows the subject matter of the curriculum for the particular grade will be able to direct and point the way for the pupils. This, of course, is expected of every history teacher. Consequently, before

the course is begun the teacher will have the subject matter so carefully organized and the problems so definitely formed that he will know approximately the time each problem will be studied.

In assigning the history lesson, the pupil must understand why a certain part is to be studied. Of course, the problem to be worked out and solved will help him to understand it, but if it is carefully explained by the teacher, it will aid and stimulate the pupil in the study of the lesson. If there are unfamiliar words and terms involved, these should be explained. The teacher should render all the aid possible in order to increase the interest of the class.

There is to be clearly manifested the close correlation of one lesson to another. In reviewing the main points of the lesson of the previous period, the work can be done very readily, without consuming too much time.

As the teacher knows and unfolds the problem of the lesson, that problem must be worked out as the definite aim in teaching the lesson. The problem must be constructed around some particular aim so that the pupil will grasp it. What are some of the aims? It may be patriotism as set forth in the life of Nathan Hale; citizenship as exemplified in the life of Thomas Jefferson; or co-operation as shown by the work of Clara Barton in the organization of the Red Cross. Then, too, the pupil must participate in the solution of the problems in a vital way so that he can re-live the conditions involved in the problems. When he can do this objectively through active participation, he has motivated history in an understanding manner.

The motivation of history is largely dependent upon the content of the course. For instance, in teaching history from grades four to twelve the biographical approach makes it possible to motivate interest in history in a very remarkable way. The children in these grades are particularly interested in people and personalities.

The preparation of the lesson is basically involved upon the subject matter. This will help determine the problem. There may be involved in it questions relating to geography and government. In planning the lesson primary source material is of the utmost importance. That the teacher should be cognizant of these

sources is self-evident. Such material constitutes the core of the lesson. The teacher should have access to many reference books, many of which should be found in his professional library. Reference and research work must be done by the teacher to bring the best and latest views upon the lesson. As soon as possible the child should be taught how to use reference books and to appreciate the value of primary source records.

Frequent use of reference books will help the teacher to a simple and at the same time less exhaustive plan of organizing the lesson subject material. Once the problem and aim have been determined upon, then the teacher should make a thorough organization of the points involved. This will help him to have the material well in hand and he can enrich the text with the outside material he has secured. Then the questions should be formed to cover the plan of the outline.

In planning the presentation of the lesson, the teacher must keep in mind the objective of the problem, and also the grade level. The material must be so organized that, in the presentation, it will not be beyond the mental experience of the pupils. It is so easy to teach a lesson above the age experience of the pupil.

The questions which the teacher has prepared will soon reveal whether the children are grasping the teacher's viewpoint or not. It will be necessary to formulate the questions with the utmost care. It has been well said that to ask questions is a fine art. In order to ask proper questions, study, thought, and effort are required. Questioning holds a most important place in teaching. A question intelligently asked and properly answered will impress the truth upon the pupil's mind, and he will grasp it better than by any other method of teaching.

It must be borne in mind in asking questions that the attainment of proper results is dependent upon two factors, namely, a prepared teacher, and a pupil who has carefully studied his lesson. It is utterly impossible for a teacher to expect to get proper answers to his questions when a pupil knows comparatively little about the lesson. Through questioning, the teacher will endeavor to develop the pupil's vocabulary. A question should be so stated that more than

a mere "Yes" or "No" must be given in answer. There must be fact questions in order to bring out certain lines of information found in the lesson. There must be a logical sequence. There should also be thought questions based on the lesson and information previously acquired. These questions provoke discussion and cause the pupil to ask additional questions which should be answered as far as possible by pupils. The teacher should refrain from answering the questions where the answers have proved to be wrong, but he should help the pupils to answer them by directing the lesson discussion into correct channels. The breaking up of questions which pupils failed to answer will arouse additional discussion and backward pupils will be helped to participate in the discussion.

Certain review questions should be added in order to unite the lesson with the previous one

studied. In formulating the questions on the lesson for the day, the teacher must remember there are important geographical problems involved. There are also certain lessons which open up fine opportunities to stress various phases of citizenship. The teacher should welcome this opportunity whenever presented and make the most of it.

The teacher must carefully safeguard the time factor in the presentation of the lesson. By having a carefully-prepared outline or lesson plan the teacher will not become lost in the discussion of irrelevant details. Time must be saved in order to prepare a careful summary of the lesson. This the pupils should do as it will help them to hold the material by thorough organization. The summarization will help develop historical values and clinch outstanding ideals and principles.

Effective Enthusiasm of Danish Folk Education

PART II

MARIUS HANSOME

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AN IDEA THAT MADE A DIFFERENCE

The idea of a Folk High School was conceived in the fertile mind of Grundtvig, and the first school was formally opened at Rödning in the Province of North Schleswig, November 7, 1844. The movement there begun, helped to prepare the farmers of Denmark to embrace the idea of cooperation and the science of agriculture as means to economic survival and subsequent prosperity. Grundtvig and Kristen Kold were in the yeast that leavened the agrarian lump. Even so severe a critic of Grundtvigianism as Georg Brandes, wrote: "It is to the credit of this great man [Grundtvig], the intellectual awakener of the Northern peasant classes, that he gave a vigorous impulse to the education of the people through the establishment of numerous peasant high schools."

In Grundtvig's opinion, a *school for life* must help to develop the individual, unfold his potentialities so that he may become that which he has in him to become, make him an adequate

member of the group who will work for the common good. Enlightenment must be humane, worldly, and Christian, in the order given. Character is the record of activity for the common good. Living social vision into deed is the measure of achievement, not mere information, lessons, nor examinations. To mature socially one must outgrow or complete individuality through sociality.

A student should acquire "a living conception of the civic community and of the common good, a living sense of the individuality of the people, a deep devotion to king and country, power to express himself orally in the mother tongue with life and ease, freedom and dignity, a clear insight into what we have (as a nation) and what we lack founded upon accurate information regarding the state of the nation." Thus the school would serve the purpose of bridging, the gulf between life and learning. The divorce between labor and learning, the studied aloofness of the learned from the common people,

Grundtvig viewed as alarmingly dangerous to national welfare.

Climbing out of the peasant class should be discouraged since that way the countryside would be drained of its superior brains. The Folk High School should be residential so that daily intercourse between students and teachers would play an effective role in creating a spiritual sense of unity in multiplicity.

Grundtvig insisted emphatically that only youths above the age of eighteen years should be admitted since the earlier teen-ager generally is not sufficiently serious minded either for asking significant questions or for the study of social questions. Hence he stipulated that from fourteen to eighteen a youth should be vocationally trained, in other words, learn how to work.

Folk high schools should impose no entrance requirements, no quizzes, no required readings, and no final examinations. (Kristen Kold likened the examination procedure to a child regurgitating its food in order for the mother to check-up on what the child had eaten!)

To realize the aim of the school for life, Grundtvig offered a limited curriculum consisting of universal history, literature and the mother tongue, poetry and song.

Grundtvig was wholly trained and schooled in the humanistic disciplines. He found it difficult, if not impossible, to conceive that natural science played an important part in the mental and spiritual life of mankind. Physics, chemistry, and mathematics he thought would tend to create materialism. It was not until 1878 that the versatile and erudite Poul La Cour, an incomparable teacher who could make science interesting to peasant students, was engaged by Askov Folk High School to teach those sciences in their historical development.

In order to understand the progress of agriculture in Denmark, it should be recorded that the Royal Agricultural College began its activities in 1858, and, that many rural agricultural schools followed for the purpose of transmitting the new learning in science and cooperation to future farmers.

Grundtvig produced a broad outline of the purpose, program, and personnel of the Folk High School, leaving the details of organization and administration to more practical heads and hands.

He was the herald, the awakener, the germinal mind. Under the spiritual influence of Grundtvig, Kristen Kold gave the folk high school a religious atmosphere. This is evident in one of his famous perorations: "It is in the human being that the God-like and the powers of life meet. It is in us that the battle between the God and the animal takes place, the fight between spirit and matter. And the resultant of this struggle conditions human progress. If a person neglects the fight, he may become a spoil to his indulgence and desire. The slave will become master—a human slave. Therefore, I entreat you, be strong, Oh! ye humans, for there is godlike life within you."

Withal, both Grundtvig and Kold could not escape the permeation of the secular trend which brought a shift in direction from *Divinitas* to *Humanitas*—the only power which can make for justice and right.

A SENSE OF HISTORY

The folk high schools became noted for teaching every subject historically. History became the "core curriculum," to use a peculiarly pedagogical phrase. No doubt Grundtvig was a better maker than a philosopher of history, but he did possess a *sense of history*. He would agree with J. Hutton Hynd's meaning of the term. The Ethical Culturist Hynd says: "It is an awareness that the individual life is intimately and vitally associated with the successive happenings of history; and awareness that these happenings of history are the evidence of a process that is greater, more enduring, more significant, than the individual life which is a part of the process."

History in the sense of factual detail is fragmentary, disjointed. What binds the events together? Grundtvig understood that it is human beings and institutions that bind the parts together and give them continuity. In other words, it is human beings that give time its meaning at all. Grundtvig represents the process of history as reproducing on a large scale the process which takes place in the life of the individual. This view led him to periodize or typify history under the triad of childhood, manhood, and old age, corresponding to the three elements of the human mind, namely, fantasy, feeling, and reason, or the three moods—inspiration, reflection and hope. He evidently adopted and adapted this scheme

from the Greeks as did Spengler a century later. Universal history as taught in the folk high schools should comprise all human activity including all scientific and artistic achievement and endeavor, he held.

His preoccupation with universal history and theology involved him in some tangles. History as a process, he contended, was set going by God—the God of Christianity. What happened before Christ was merely a preparation for the coming of the son of God. This in the light of archeology! Not until the conversion to Christianity did the history of the Nordic people really get under way, he averred. The putative connection between Protestantism and capitalism eluded his keen intuition.

SCHOOL BECOMES A FORT

The first school was placed in Rødding near the German border in North Schleswig as a cultural and spiritual defense against Prussianization. In this area German and Danish culture were in constant conflict. The Prussians were determined to Prussianize the whole of Jutland peninsula even if it meant the extermination of the Danes. It must be clear now to any reader of events abroad why the Prussian militarists wanted Jutland. They were thwarted in their grab-it-all plan in 1848 when little Denmark in a magnificent defense knocked the Prussians down into ignominious defeat. Grundtvig was active with voice and pen, rousing the Danes to a high pitch of patriotism. He delivered a flaming speech—"The North Against Germany"—before the Danish Association ending with a patriotic verse with the refrain: "It rumbles in the Elbe. It rumbles in the Rhin[e]. It rumbles in Frankfurt. And in the midst of Berlin."

Rødding carried on. The value of citizenship and the conservation of national culture were the main purpose at first. The school's "Announcement" also justified the name Folk High School "because members of every class can obtain admittance to it, even if it is chiefly adapted to the farming class, and expects to draw its students from this class in particular."

The school had to close in 1848 and again in 1864. After the disastrous war of 1864, Rødding doors were closed to Danish students until the plebiscite of 1920.

It is interesting to observe, in view of the controversy between the advocates of general

and vocational education in America, that after several years of Rødding, even the teachers disagreed on the purpose of that school.

The roaring organ accompanying Grundtvig's songs was all very well, but they thought that the school should offer "more practical" instruction. Some contended that the school should be given wholly to agricultural learning and skills. It seems to require uncommon sense to understand that there is nothing more practical than correct theory. A few of the teachers were not insensitive to that fact, but many of the supporters could not see far enough ahead to discern that an enthusiasm for general cultural education could profoundly influence practical everyday life and public policy.

Some hard-headed, horny-fisted farmers could not grasp what tangible results could ever follow from Kristen Kold's expatiating fervently on universal history and poetry! But Grundtvig and Kold held their course. Sixty folk high schools dot the Danish ruralside today. Those who wanted vocational agriculture for their youth started schools exclusively for that purpose. The Danes believe so thoroughly in education and science that they have trained their animals to produce from three to four times more. The Danes mix their soil with brains; they act upon science. All of the people's colleges, cultural and vocational, are essentially voluntary enterprises.

PRUSSIANIZATION VIA THE IRON HEEL

After the terrifying defeat by the Prussians and Austrians in 1864, the school at Rødding, a school being primarily an association of students and teachers, was moved to Askov just across the border from Schleswig. Askov became a beacon light to the homeless Danes in the conquered province. The Prussians proceeded with redoubled vigor and despatch to demilitarize and Germanize the vanquished Danish population. People were arrested for the slightest exhibition of Danish patriotic sentiment. Agents, provocateurs, civilian spies, gendarmes, and harsh, brutal teachers were assigned to duty in the province. The writer, who attended school in that bi-lingual province, often saw inspectors in military regalia stride through the countryside in their seven-mile, spurred boots, goose-step into the schools and with overbearing, gruff mien and raucous voice attempt to instill obedience in the youth.

If a Danish patriot should burst into song in a saloon, he would be ordered across the border in twenty-four hours. That meant the quick and cheap disposal of his house and land to some Prussian. This was a favorite method of Germanization and land-grabbing. But the Danes were not easily intimidated. The Prussian bombast, their boastful superiority, their ruthless design, their voluble and loud talk did not crush the spirit of the Danes. Notice that the Danes have no need of loud talk since they do not harbor an inferiority complex!

Rational discussion issuing in cooperation keeps Denmark from the malignancy of national neurosis. Wherever apologetics become voluble, there is ground for a presumption that talk and doing are out of alignment and correlation. A century of voluntary adult education has made the Danes generally immune to the virus of fascism and other sophistries. They are convinced that the advantages today are on the side of cooperation.

Let the historian of education take note that the Danes put a folk school where the Germans put a fortification! First at Rödning, then at Askov, and, after the World War I, they built an International High School at Elsinore.

There were those who would have built an "impregnable wall" on the boundary line between Jutland and Germany but the method of air warfare has rendered any Maginot Line impotent. The superiority of adult social education which is variously expressed in communal institutions was demonstrated gloriously in the solidarity of the Danes during the Naziistic blackout. The Danes have learned also that world fellowship begins at home in daily, honest, and friendly intercourse.

But Denmark, Sweden, and Norway must share in the contributory negligence which they showed in their tardy attention to building a more vigorous Scandinavian interrelationship and alignment as well as cultivating more commerce and interchange with Soviet Russia. The which leads to an observation or two regarding:

GRUNDTVIG AS AN INTERNATIONALIST

"The true internationalist," said Grundtvig, "should foster a love of native country." Further: "The more strongly a nation defends its freedom and independence, its fatherland and

mother tongue, the more fruitfully human life develops in all directions, and the more beneficial, happy, and fruitful becomes the interaction of *all people of the earth*." (Italics, added)

This thought is akin to Professor James Shotwell's observation: that the solving of domestic, national problems tends to solve problems in the international field.

Grundtvig often appealed for the organization of a Nordic brotherhood of peoples with a common language. He related a legend of the dim past which told that the kings of Scandinavia met annually in peace-time on an island owned by them in common, near Gothenburg, Sweden. They met to consider problems common to their realm. We need another such island as the property of humanity where we can build the Parliament of Man. Maybe we can dip into the Pacific Ocean for such a site! What a prospect of joy awaits a sane, imaginative world!

The larger unity is conditioned by the production of the larger mindedness, insisted the poet-prelate. Therefore, in the spirit of Comenius, the pansophist, Grundtvig advocated the establishing of a Scandinavian University, a fellowship of great scholars, scientists, and artists who should be engaged in advancing the frontiers of knowledge, and proposed that the Folk High Schools should be centers for the communication of knowledge which had a bearing on the promotion of the common good of mankind. That is a challenge which Scandinavia might well heed, even now.

BABEL-CURSED EUROPE

As far back as 1832, Grundtvig perceived that the diversity of tongues is a serious obstacle to the wider fellowship of mankind. Dead languages he excoriated as anachronistic barriers. He implored the *Gelehrten* to busy themselves with the removal of linguistic and educational barriers. He accused them of maintaining a monopoly of knowledge. He argued that the cultural heritage belonged to all and should be made freely accessible to all. Indeed, where did the great bards and composers get their original inspiration, if not from the aspirations of the common people.

The same criticism can in no small measure be levelled at the *Gelehrten* of the present. One should think, for example, that the linguists

and philologists and teachers of languages would be stirred by the need for helping this Babel-cursed world. Do we hear them asking in unison: What can we contribute now to linguistic understanding? In what other way can they justify their cloistered security? Now that we have rapid communication by radio, the need for an international language is obvious and pressing. In fairness to all, an international language must be artificial; the imposition of any one of the United Nations' tongues would allow an unfair advantage. The time is ripe for initiative, the soul of the diverse peoples of the world cries aloud for understanding and belongingness. We can at least require live languages in schools and relegate the dead to a few scholars if they need them.

GRUNDTVIG AND THE RISING PROLETARIAT

Though Grundtvig came out for the Folk—the whole people—he succeeded only in reaching the farmers and cottagers. An unhappy paradox this, that he who sang so lustily of brotherhood, should in effect become a resistant influence to a closer bond between urban and rural workers and intellectuals. This irony of events hurt him since as a bard he had every good intention to speak for the common good. Born in 1783, he lived until 1872. He delivered a sermon shortly before he passed into Valhalla.

A new orientation was already in progress before he died. In 1871, Georg Brandes began a series of public lectures at the University of Copenhagen: *The Main Literary Currents of the Nineteenth Century*. The cooperative movement looked to its own leaders. In the same year, Louis Pio, Brix, and Poul Geleff organized the Social Democratic Party of Denmark whose consistently progressive social policy made Frederick Howe refer to Denmark as a Cooperative Commonwealth. Does history throw any doubt that Denmark will go forward again in the post-war world?

GRUNDTVIG—A TRANSITIONAL FIGURE

The good men do lives after them provided successive generations appropriate that good into their own lives. The good of Grundtvig lives in the Folk High Schools. Their influence upon the political, economic, educational, and moral life of the community can be seen in: the rise of village cultural centers, singing and

choral societies, folk dancing and gymnastic associations, the historical method of teaching, the temperance movement, an increasing number of folk high school men in Parliament, healthier home life, art in rural homes, numerous cooperative enterprises, the relationship of equals, more or less, and in the dissipation of the feeling of inferiority in the common populace without which a progressive democracy is impossible.

There may be other alternatives, but if one could typify human attitudes toward life under three heads, as follows: (1) the escapist, (2) the philistine, (3) the fighter—including, of course, the creative personality, then Grundtvig may be said to have embodied something of all three qualities with the fighting quality predominating throughout. In theology he was partly escapist, reactionary, and combatant; in economics he acquiesced conservatively with laissez faire; in domestic politics he was a stanch patriot and an intense nationalist; but, in schooling, in culture, and in international outlook he was a fighter, a deviant, innovator, and creator.

Grundtvig helped to revive the fighting spirit of the Norse people, but he aimed to give it an intellectual, spiritual, and cooperative form. It is a mark of great leadership to provide for the continuous development of common interests.

CONCLUSION

It has been asked: Does the folk high school idea and system apply to American conditions? Mere imitation, no, but the idea of voluntary adult group education applies anywhere in the world. What the world may learn is the exceedingly difficult lesson of the example of how social values are realized in operation so as to prevent neurosis, frustration, fruitless conflict, and poverty. An idea must be acted upon to bring it to a test and consequent justification.

It is an extremely interesting fact that the universities of Denmark do not sponsor independent departments of sociology. Here in America, high schools, colleges, and universities support a great deal of sociological teaching. Many books and studies of sociology are published. How effective has the teaching been? Have we attained to a common social purpose in view of which we can plan and conduct our lives with reasonable security? What

is the quality of solidarity? Have we cultivated genuine critical and socialized attitudes? Have we stretched the minds of public policy-makers? (*Vide* the selfishness and bigotry of many legalistic legislators—state and national!) How readily do we secure consent for new public laws regarding socialized medicine, social insurance, scientific research, etc.?

In Denmark social education has been largely under voluntary auspices. The many social laws there indicate that the Danes *act* upon the social teaching. They live and love science and cooperation, hence they have little need to verbalize about it. Sociology in our large eastern universities seems to be oriented toward German schools. Our research students might have found good panning in the social-economic life of Scandinavia. But they "couldn't find

any tomes containing sociological systems." They will find only social laws in operation.

A university's job, as Veblen taught, is first, to produce new ideas, and the job of a liberal college is to awaken intelligent enthusiasms, a love of continuous inquiry. But, enthusiasm has been academically taboo; enlivenment and inspiration have been identified with popularization. Hence, we meet with the paradox of education in a capitalistic democracy. We shall be on the way to a solution when we really begin to awaken enthusiasm for the idea of an expanding economic democracy and proceed to make arrangements for its institutionalization. In the method of adult social education, in the evocation of a love of knowledge as an intrinsic good, the example of Grundtvig's Denmark contains both help and hope.

American Military Government After Two Wars

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In *Current History* for September, 1945, Professor A. B. Sageser told the story of the "Military Occupation of the Confederate States," pointing out certain similarities between that episode and the situation in Germany. It would seem that sufficient time has elapsed since then to justify a comparison of methods whereby government was reconstructed in the South after 1867 and in the American zone in Germany since 1945. This article concerns itself with the German problem, although the United States is also involved in the creation of democracy in Japan.

For the first time in their history, Americans have undertaken the obligations of occupying foreign countries and of creating democratic governments therein. It is apparent that many people are not conscious of the important new departure implied in this rather startling fact. Cuba and the Philippines provided some experience for American administrators, but the status of those two areas was not parallel with

that of contemporary Germany; for the Spanish-American War to have engendered a similar problem, Spain itself would have been occupied and its government reorganized. The United States did neither. Nor did Americans gain much experience out of World War I: the Germans were permitted to construct their own democratic regime without foreign occupation, except in the Rhineland.

Lessons that might be learned from past experience in military occupation and in the construction of government for a conquered nation should be of value to the American people today, faced as they are with enormous responsibilities in attempting to produce a democracy in the American zone in Germany. The nearest analogue to the current situation was the military reconstruction of the South after the Civil War. It goes without saying that the two cases differed in some notable particulars: the Southerners lived on American soil; they were not foreigners; and they spoke English; further-

more, there was the Negro problem which does not exist in Germany, at least not as a vital issue.

Yet the procedure followed after 1867 in the South is worth analysis. As Professor Sageser said: "The problems, experiences, and perhaps the results of this period of military occupation may be helpful in evaluating our present venture in Germany." The aim of the North during the Reconstruction era was the same as that of the United States in its German zone today; namely, the establishment of a regime or regimes willing to carry out the wishes of the victor; or, to put it another way, the institution of a government or governments after the image of the conqueror. In the South after 1867 the image was Northern Republicanism; in Germany it is Western democracy.

Unfortunately Germany is divided into four zones. Is it to be reorganized on the basis of American capitalist democracy, British Socialist democracy, or Russian Communist democracy, to say nothing of French democracy, whatever it can be called? Something of the same problem existed after the Civil War. Whose image was to be the prototype—that of the conservatives or that of the radicals? Even before the Civil War was over, Lincoln enunciated a generous program towards the South in the one-tenth plan which he offered on December 8, 1863. This scheme would permit most of the Confederates to participate in the formation of loyal State governments provided they were willing to take an oath saying that they were repentant and intended to be good citizens.

President Johnson followed Lincoln's policy for the most part. Under the Lincoln-Johnson plan, which is properly designated as restoration, only those who were the highest-ranking Confederate leaders would have been disfranchised from office. These "peace terms" envisaged a mild form of punishment in order, as Lincoln said in another connection, "to bind up the nation's wounds." Confederates would be persuaded to become citizens again by means of a generous policy of allowing them to re-establish their own state governments. This would be a sort of self-reconstruction. Johnson required the acceptance of only three terms: repeal of the ordinances of secession, abolition

of slavery, and repudiation of the Southern state debts.

The lenient attitude of Lincoln and Johnson was comparable to that of the Allies toward Germany after 1918. The Germans were permitted—even urged, if they wanted peace—to form their own democratic government. Save for the Rhine area, the allies did not occupy Germany, nor did they directly reorganize the German government after the fall of the kaiser. The new Weimar Republic was expected to try the war criminals, but the trials were a mere gesture. Actually the defeated Germans were not treated as severely by the Versailles Treaty as they later charged. In the 1930's the statement was often heard in the United States that it had been a mistake not to occupy Berlin in 1918 and that the Germans should have been made to feel the effects of their defeat. If a mistake, it was not repeated at the end of World War II.

After the Civil War the charitable Johnson plan of restoration was not acceptable to the radical elements of the Republican party who desired a policy of "thorough." These radicals, for party and other reasons, wanted to recreate the Southern states into Republican regimes, based upon enfranchisement of all the Negroes who would of course be Republican, and upon disfranchisement of the leading Confederates, many of whom had been participating in the Johnson state governments. Radicals demanded reconstruction of the states from the ground up by dependable voters instead of a mere restoration by Confederate leaders.

In 1867 the radicals proceeded to legislate their views into the statute books by means of the military reconstruction laws. These measures attempted to give to Northern people a feeling that the war had really been won and that the Southern leaders actually were being punished. Radicals believed that it was unthinkable to permit the "criminal rebels" to take part in government, whether state or federal, so soon after they had endeavored to break up the Union. Their attitude was not far removed from that of Americans who, at the end of World War II, would have considered it unthinkable to allow leading Nazis like Goering to participate in the new German government. In the radical program, vengeance rather than

generosity was the watchword. Just as is true in Germany today, the kingbolt of the plan was the franchise. The "good" sheep must be separated from the "bad" goats; and then loyal republican governments constituted by the former.

The Southern states, except Tennessee, were remanded to military control and divided into five districts under as many generals. These generals were to see that all loyal persons registered and that all disloyal ones were disabled. The prospective registrant was offered an oath which required him to declare that he had not in any way aided the rebellion after having held office before 1861; if he took the oath falsely he was subject to punishment for perjury. Of course all Negroes, most of the poorer whites, and those who had recently come from the North, could take the oath. About 150,000 Southern leaders were disfranchised.

After all the eligibles had been registered, elections were held in each "state" for delegates to constitutional conventions. These conventions, composed largely of Negroes, Southern Scalawags, and Northern Carpetbaggers, were then supposed to place disfranchising provisions in the new constitutions so that the reconstructed states would be thrown into the hands of the Republicans who in turn would carry them for Grant in 1868. After the constitutions were written, the registered electors voted for or against them; most of them were of course accepted without change. Alabama's constitution was refused by the electorate, but the state was readmitted by Congress anyway. Then elections were held to choose governors, members of the legislatures, and representatives to the lower house of Congress. Those chosen were for the most part Negroes and white radicals. Upon convening, the new legislatures were required to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment, after which they selected radicals to be senators at Washington. Six of the states were sufficiently reconstructed to throw their electoral votes to Grant in 1868.

These radically reconstituted states were retained by the Republicans for varying lengths of time. The longest period of control by the new electorates was in Florida, Louisiana, and South Carolina; there the local radicals, supported by United States soldiers, were able to

stay in office until 1877 when President Hayes withdrew the troops. Upon returning to power, the native white Democrats proceeded to disfranchise the blacks. It is reasonable to expect that, if the disabled Nazis were returned to authority in the near future, they would take even worse vengeance upon the democrats than the Southern whites took on the blacks.

While it is true that the Republican party squeezed three Presidential elections (1868, 1872, 1876) out of the Republicanization of the South by military means, it cannot be said that in the long perspective this experiment in military reconstruction was a success. In the first place, the new electorate never learned how to maintain control without support of the United States army. Furthermore, the experiment helped to exacerbate the ever-present race question, made the Southerners even more determined that Negroes should not vote, and created the solid South. Does the process as carried out during Reconstruction have any lessons in Germany?

Even though there are important differences, the problems are fundamentally alike because in the South the Northern aim was—and in Germany the American aim is—to create a new electorate which in turn will establish the kind of system the victor wants. Other similarities are also striking:

(1) The determination on the part of Northern radicals to punish Southern "rebels" for their "crimes" was as strong as that of the Allies to punish Nazis for their crimes. In 1862 Senator Charles Sumner declared:

For the conspirators, who organized this great crime and let slip the dogs of war, there can be no penalty too great. They should be not only punished to the extent of our power, but they should be stripped of all means of influence, so that should their lives be spared, they may be doomed to waste them out in poverty, if not in exile. To this end their property must be taken.

Thus the desire to avenge Andersonville and Libby was not different in principle from the desire to avenge Oswiecim and Dachau, although the crimes committed at the latter places were infinitely more hideous than those reportedly committed at the former.

(2) The insistence by Northern radicals

that men whose hands were bloody with the blood of Northern sons should not participate in the government was just as marked as that of the Allies who said criminal Nazis must be kept out of post-war German politics. For instance, Representative M. R. Thayer of Pennsylvania asserted: "To reward the perpetrators of this great crime against civil liberty by welcoming them back to the Union without securities for the present or pledges for the future . . . would . . . be a crime against the living and the dead." Likewise Representative Green Clay Smith of Kentucky said that he would under no conditions allow Jefferson Davis to re-enter the Senate. ". . . I would not allow it. . . . I would hang him without an 'if' or an 'and'!"

(3) In both instances the instrument for accomplishing the purpose in view was the army. Serious attempts were made during World War II to train men in AMG for the tasks of governing conquered territory. No such training was offered during the Civil War. Whether military men, even though trained for the work, are the proper ones to entrust with political functions is questionable. The knotty and unanswerable legal tangles which confronted soldiers as they wrestled with the problem of interpreting the meaning of the military acts, of registering loyal voters, and of controlling governments during Reconstruction, lead one to ask whether the military is the proper functionary for such delicate political duties.¹

The duty of the military is properly military; that is, to support the civilian authorities and to keep down disorder. When the army moves into enemy territory, it must perforce exercise direct administrative functions for the time being; but the recreation of permanent civil government should be in the hands of civilians—perhaps civilians in uniform, but men without the military viewpoint. There is no doubt that the army must be present in Germany for some years, but the actual re-establishment of civil government should be supervised by civilians. On November 14, 1946, Anthony Eden made a demand in the House of Commons that

the government send to the British zone "a Minister, who should be of Cabinet rank, who has had experience of administration, and who has good political judgment, to assist the Commander-in-chief in his most onerous task." Saul K. Padover, after returning from service with MG, suggested in *The Nation*, December 22, 1945, that Congress establish a civilian Occupied Lands Authority (OLA) under the direction of men like Harold Stassen, Milton Eisenhower, and Herbert Lehman. Padover declared that while military occupation is necessary, military government is undesirable.

Aside from exile, which is usually self-imposed, unwanted elements may be removed from the political scene by various methods, running from disfranchisement (the mildest) to imprisonment (more drastic) to execution (the most extreme). The second was used temporarily for Southern rebel leaders, many of whom were imprisoned and threatened with trials for treason. Jefferson Davis was incarcerated for some time, but was soon released because, under the constitutional provision for a jury trial, it was considered impossible to impanel a jury of Southerners who would convict him. Other Confederates fled to England, Mexico, South America, and elsewhere. The chief method whereby the rebels were directly punished was the disabling of the leading ones from office, although the enfranchisement of the Negroes acted as an indirect punishment also. Actual liquidation by execution was not attempted in spite of rabid demands made by extreme radicals during the war.

In the case of the Nazis, all three forms of punishment have been employed. The top men and the worst criminals were tried and executed. No constitutional provision for a jury trial prevented the allies from convicting the ring-leaders at Nuremberg, as well as others by military commission. Some high-ranking ones like Hitler liquidated themselves. Exile, which saved the kaiser, was not possible after World War II. Others have been imprisoned. The *Philadelphia Record*, January 29, 1947, commented on the fact that in the year and a half since Germany's collapse "the United States, which controls one third of Germany, has executed [only] 221 Germans." Inasmuch as it is estimated, continued the editor, that the

¹ For more on this point, see the author's "Registration and Disfranchisement under Radical Reconstruction" in *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, September, 1934.

Nazis murdered more than 6,000,000 Europeans, of whom probably 2,000,000 lived in what is now the American zone, executions have amounted to one for 9,000 murders. "During the war," however, "allied leaders, including our own, promised that those guilty of mass murder would be punished by death. . . . We still have a long way to go even to begin to eliminate the top leaders of the most vicious Government of all time."

In the denazification process the mere fact of numbers presented a staggering job. Of the 11,000,000 Germans in the American zone who filled out questionnaires, 3,000,000 were considered as chargeable with Nazism. Two million were finally so charged. By December 31, 1945 MG had investigated about 783,000 Germans, of whom 21 per cent were disfranchised. Nevertheless, according to the International Committee for the Study of European Questions, in the Bavarian part of the American zone alone "out of nearly a million dossiers drawn up against the Nazis nearly 950,000 had not been examined at the beginning of the autumn of 1946."

So enormous was the task that early in 1946 MG had already begun to turn the denazification process over to the Germans themselves. In the same way, after the Civil War, the radical state constitutions were expected to disfranchise rebels from state office. Most of them did so; in fact several were so vengeful that radical authorities at Washington tried to temper their vindictiveness. Under a code proclaimed on March 5, 1946, German courts were ordered to try Nazis. The code provided for five classes: (1) major offenders who had taken a leading part in the Nazi regime and who might be punished with hard labor and disfranchisement; (2) activists, militarists, and profiteers, who were to receive punishment in proportion to their misdeeds; (3) lesser offenders, who might be placed on probation; (4) followers who had been merely nominal members of the Nazi party; and (5) exonerated persons.

Denazification has been carried out by the German courts with considerable despatch and efficiency; they are much more businesslike in the matter of punishing wrongdoers than were the courts of the Weimar Republic which were

supposed to deal with "criminals" of the German Empire. As *Life* said on November 11, 1946: "If anything, the Germans are stricter and certainly more discriminating denazifiers than we were before we gave them the job." In one respect they are more severe than were the Allies. When the Nuremberg tribunal acquitted Franz von Papen and Hans Fritzsche, they were tried by a German court at Nuremberg.

Meanwhile the task of creating more permanent regimes had been undertaken in the American zone, partly to train the Germans in self-government, partly to relieve American administrators—whose ranks were being depleted as men left for home—of the details of civil administration. Roughly speaking, reconstruction of civil rule in the American zone and reconstruction in the South after 1867 were of a similar pattern. First came disfranchisement of the undesirables and then the new electorate was expected to create a new regime. The procedure in Wuerttemberg-Baden was told by Moses Moskowitz, formerly with MG, in the *Political Science Quarterly*, December, 1946.

By November, 1945, after considerable urging by American administrators, four non-Nazi parties had been formed: Communist, Social Democratic, Christian Social, and Democratic People's. MG then appointed a Minister-President and a coalition cabinet. The next step was to hold local elections in the *Gemeinden* (communities) under 20,000 in population on January 27, 1946. On April 28 elections were had in rural counties and in five rural communities over 20,000 in population. Then on May 26 local officials were chosen in the *Stadtkreise* (urban counties) of Stuttgart, Mannheim, Karlsruhe, Ulm, Heidelberg, and Pforzheim. At that point the job of instituting democratically elected local government had been completed. The first time the entire electorate of Wuerttemberg-Baden functioned was on June 30, 1946 when delegates were elected to a constitutional convention for the writing of a democratic constitution for the *Land*.

The same process was going on in Bavaria and Hesse, which were the other two *Laender* in the American zone. In spite of the passage of

twelve years since there had been a free election, voters were reported as carrying out their duties commendably. The constitutions were framed carefully with the aid of James Kerr Pollock, political scientist of the University of Michigan. According to *Life*, November 11, 1946, these constitutions were supposedly made water-tight against the possibility of a legal overturn by a future Hitler. In due time the constitutions were ratified and three governments, headed by Minister-Presidents with cabinets, were formed.

One of the important duties handed over to the new governments was to continue with the process of denazification. The fact that there were hardly any Germans who were not tainted more or less with Nazism was given renewed proof when the Minister-President and Minister of Culture in the new Wuerttemberg-Baden "state" were accused by certain Germans, early in 1947, of helping to place Hitler in power. They were threatened with a denazification trial. If convicted, they would be placed in Class I.

While the punishment meted out to the Confederates was not nearly so drastic as that handed to the Nazis, the basic reason for both was the same: to shelve the undesirable leaders so that the more desirable "little people" could take over. But, after the first flush of vengeance had achieved the disabling of the rebel leaders for the time being, there soon developed a feeling that enough punishment had been given and that a halt should be called to the process. Humanitarian scruples, a desire to return to normalcy, and the need of putting the South back on its feet economically, prevented any more extreme punishment than the disfranchisement of the leading rebels.

Thaddeus Stevens' confiscation threat was never taken seriously. One notable reason for this rapid decline of vengeance was a practical difficulty. The disfranchisement was so heavy in many areas of the South that no competent persons could be found for either state or local office; only illiterate Negroes and untrained whites were available. In fact disfranchisement had hardly been imposed before the party purpose demanded that the Republicans re-enfranchise many of the disabled people in order to get enough officials to start the

new state governments going. When they were being established, some of them sent long lists of men to Congress, asking for removal of their disabilities; otherwise no radical governments could be instituted. Indeed, some of the new radical electorates chose men for the United States Congress who could not take the oath of office until Congress, with evident chagrin, removed their disqualifications. Before long Congress itself was re-enfranchising Southerners *en masse*, as in the amnesty measure of 1872, which restored all disabled persons to the privilege of officeholding except about 500.

Something like this happened in Germany almost from the beginning. Despite the general feeling that no Nazis ought to be allowed to hold office, MG, by the very force of circumstance, had to use many of them as *Bürgermeister* and as other local officers. Just as in some Southern counties and towns everyone of experience had been a "rebel," so in many German places there were no experienced non-Nazis—if, indeed, there were any non-Nazis at all. Moreover, the Nazis alone knew anything about local government and administration. In short, the problems of restoring municipal services and of reinstituting governmental functions were so immense that any intentions MG may have had of using only simon-pure democrats was as impossible of fulfillment as was the intention of radicals to use only simon-pure Unionists.

After hostilities ceased in Germany, there were immediate attempts to remove the out-right Nazis from local posts if less tainted ones or if democrats could be found. The process of denazification made the task of American supervisors even more difficult, for, in many cases they had hardly gotten things going in certain towns through the use of Nazi officials before these men had to be evicted and green ones chosen. There was a limit to which disfranchisement in the South and to which denazification in Germany could go. Nevertheless the use of Nazis, even temporarily, angered many Americans. Padover, already cited, was very critical about the employment of Nazis in local areas. In Aachen the German administration as set up by MG was almost entirely Nazi. This was also true in Bavaria until, in Padover's words, the Bavarian government

was "kicked" out by General Eisenhower.²

Just as happened during Reconstruction, the question arose as to how many undesirable Germans could or should be shelved; and if disabled, how long they could or should be kept out of politics. After all, a complete blood bath or purge went counter to democratic and humanitarian sensibilities. Only totalitarian states, like Communist Russia after 1917 and Nazi Germany after 1933 were bloodthirsty enough to attempt liquidation of the entire opposition. In the post-war South there were thousands of "little rebels" who were not worth punishing, even by disfranchisement; by the same token there were thousands of "little Nazis" who could not be taken out of circulation—at least not for long. Thus on the day before Christmas, 1946, General Joseph T. McNarney "amnestied" about 800,000 of the "small-fry" Nazis. These were "little men" who had incomes less than 3,600 marks between 1943 and 1945, or who had taxable property worth not more than 20,000 marks in 1945. McNarney's act can be compared to the amnesty measure of 1872.

The rapid change from vengefulness to forgiveness on the part of American administrators in Germany was hastened by the dollar sign, just as it was hastened in 1867-1868 by the party purpose. It soon dawned upon British and American taxpayers that they were being given the dubious honor of standing the cost for the occupation of Germany. The deficit in the British zone was estimated at £80,000,000, or £100,000,000 if the British portion of Austria be included. For 1948 President Truman asked \$725,000,000 for government and relief in occupied areas. This sum was about the same as in 1947. The decline of vengeance, in part because of the high cost of vengeance in pounds, was expressed by Winston Churchill in a speech to the Commons on November 12, 1946:

We and the Americans continue to rule and administer the German people in our zones at extravagant and almost unbearable cost . . . to ourselves, and with increasing dissatisfaction to the Germans. . . . We are all agreed that the proper course is . . . to make the Germans earn their own living, and make them manage their own affairs as soon as

possible, and to give them all possible aid while preventing every form of rearmament . . . There must be an end of vengeance and retribution . . . It is my hope that we shall presently reach the end of executions, penalties, and punishments . . .

This declaration was a far cry from some of the vengeful statements that were made by many leaders during the war. Churchill went on to say that since the Nuremberg and other trials had punished the criminals, it was time to call a halt:

We are told that thousands yet remain to be tried, and that vast categories of Germans are classed as potentially guilty because of their association with the Nazi regime. After all, in a country which is handled as Germany was, the ordinary people have very little choice about what to do. I think some consideration should always be given to ordinary people. Everyone is not a Pastor Niemoller or a martyr . . .

In other words Churchill was saying that thousands of Germans could not be blamed for siding with the Nazis because they had no other choice. This attitude was similar to that which some radicals soon reached; namely, that the ordinary people could not be punished, even with disfranchisement, because they had no alternative but to accept Confederate authority once Federal power vanished in the South.

Denazification has not been as thorough as many extremists might like; nevertheless the sizable number who have been removed from German politics presents a potential danger. They are the leaders who have the know-how of German government, who have the education and experience, and who, trained in National Socialist intrigue and subversive tactics, understand how to start trouble. Some former MG officers, now returned to civilian life, have expressed a fear that these disfranchised persons constitute a future menace. Removed from seats of local and even national power, they will doubtless be ready material out of which to create undergrounds which later may cause disorder. Seeing former "no-accounts" ruling over the *Kreise* and the *Laender*, remembering the days of their former glory and disliking to take orders from democratic officials who are

² *The Nation*, October 6, 13, 20, 1945.

supported by American arms, they promise to be untractable material out of which to make a new, peace-loving, democratic Germany.

It is worth noting that the nationalists, Nazis, and militarists had the same attitude towards the Weimar Republic during the 1920's. Even though not disfranchised or otherwise disadvantaged by the Republic, men like Hitler and Ludendorff scorned the upstart, low-brow democratic officials, who, according to haters of democracy, were weaklings and miscreants who had stabbed Germany in the back. These dissident elements detested President Ebert because he had been a saddlemaker. They felt a little better at the election of Hindenburg to the presidency because he was a real aristocrat and Junker, although they did not like the democratic system even with Hindenburg at its head.

Furthermore, the inculcation of democracy in Germany is handicapped by the fact that it is being imposed from above by foreign arms. A conquered people is likely to be cool towards an outside system even though that system be good. That MG understands this fact is evident from the words of Colonel William W. Dawson, regional military commander in Wuerttemberg-Baden, who was quoted by Moskowitz as saying: "... democracy has not become the passionate ideal, because it was not fashioned in the crucible of fire and sword. It is a gift of the conqueror. There is no reason to fight for it, because its existence is not threatened. It is safeguarded by the power and might of the Armies."

That it is difficult to keep a large disfranchised group of people down—particularly if they have experience and intelligence—is proved by the opposition on the part of the disfranchised Southerners after 1867. The underground of that era was the Ku Klux Klan, many of whose members were disabled "rebels." Fretting at the way in which democracy was being prostituted by the Negro-radical coalitions in the state governments, these disfranchised leaders turned to the only type of opposition available to them. By secret terrorism they frightened the Negroes into innocuousness and caused many white radicals to amend their ways by getting out of office. So far there is no evidence of any concerted movement by the

displaced Nazis to start disorder, although rumblings are heard. Denazification offices have been bombed, and the "Odessa" gang of ex-SS men had a veritable arsenal at their headquarters in Stuttgart. On January 23, 1947, MG gave all Germans in the American zone ten days in which to turn in hidden weapons on pain of death.

Aside from the possibility of subversive movements and perhaps open disorder, both of which may develop, the decline in the political ability of officeholders must be taken into consideration. The Nazis saw to it that, by execution and by exile, the democratic leadership was extinguished. In the words of Moskowitz:

... the best of the anti-Nazi leadership was gone. Emigration and the concentration camps took a heavy toll. The handful who came out alive from the torture chambers and the larger number who spent the twelve years of Nazi rule in retirement were, for the most part, tired men, discouraged and disillusioned. They faced a new generation that did not know them, and they were discredited in the eyes of those who knew them.

The few democrats still living in exile would not be numerous enough to help matters, even if they were willing to return; and, in addition, they could hardly be welcomed by resident Germans who would look upon them as carpet-baggers. And so, most of the individuals who have been raised to places of authority in the American zone are untrained men who know little about government and who are likely to receive no more cooperation from former Nazis than is necessary. Having belonged to the politically ostracized groups during the heyday of the Nazis, they were able to secure no administrative experience. How long it will take for them to learn the art of governance—and above all to win the allegiance of the disabled persons—is a question; but it is obvious that the removal of the undesirable but experienced people from the political scene caused a lowering of official ability. That very thing happened with dire results after the disfranchisement of Southern leaders. This is not the place to repeat what the present writer has already said in *The South Atlantic Quarterly*, January, 1945, about the price paid for dis-

abling Southern Confederates but the price was high, not only for the South but for the country at large.

The trained and experienced Southern leaders—most of them disabled—knew how to deal with the ignorant and untrained people who were temporarily dominant. In their opposition to the corrupt radical governments, the displaced whites took advantage of their economic position, education, and experience. Besides using rough tactics in the Klans, they controlled the leading Southern newspapers, they were the employers of the Negroes, and they knew how to make speeches appealing for sympathy to Northern moderates. About all the new electorate could employ to maintain itself was Union troops. When military support was removed, the radical elements were helpless. It was not long before the Negroes, Scalawags, and Carpetbaggers were dislodged, and the white Democrats were restored to authority. If such is not to be the outcome in Germany, then military occupation for some time to come will be the only preventive; and yet, paradoxically enough, the longer military occupation continues, the more likelihood there is of trouble.

The denazified elements were submissive enough for some time after the end of the war—so were the Southerners just after Appomattox—but, unless prosperity comes quickly to Germany and unless the occupation authorities can speedily train good democratic leaders who will make democracy popular, difficulty lies ahead. The International Committee for the Study of European Questions believes that denazification is already a failure: "... during recent months former members of the Nazi party and of the SS have been circulating again in uniform in the various zones of occupation both in public and at private gatherings, particularly in Lower Saxony and Bavaria, and have received open manifestations of sympathy from the German people." One hears the estimate that Germany must be occupied for at least ten years; and yet, even after ten years of military reconstruction in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, the new electorate fell from power and the older elements returned. Can a different result be expected in Germany?

It is generally agreed that the answer cen-

ters around education. If enough Germans can be educated to see the value of democracy, there is hope that the new groups will be able to maintain themselves. Chief reliance is placed upon education of the young, because it is felt that most of the people who grew up under Hitler are hopeless. In a sense education was also the key to success in radical reconstruction. If the Negroes could have been quickly taught at least the three R's, the radical experiment might have shown better results. But the recently liberated blacks, now voters, could not be educated that quickly, in spite of efforts of Northern teachers who were sent to the South by the churches and by the Freedmen's Bureau. As a result the Reconstruction governments were so corrupt and venal that even many radicals in the North became disgusted. As Professor Sageser said: "The political reconstruction had wrought havoc in the South. Intelligence had been disfranchised; ignorance enfranchised." The very wickedness of uneducated radicalism brought on its own undoing.

The problem in Germany is not one of educating a totally illiterate people in the three R's; it is rather the problem of educating a highly literate nation into support of democracy. Germans must be de-educated out of Nazism. The era of radical reconstruction would indicate that this will be a delicate task. Northern teachers, whether connected with the churches or with the Freedmen's Bureau, were hated by the white Southern Democrats as unwanted Carpetbaggers. This fact is illustrated by the following from the *Southern Christian Recorder*:

Who, with any self-respect, can place himself in the social position of a pretended missionary, creeping about to pick up lying gossip and kitchen scandal, and retailing it with a malignity that one must feel "tabooed" in all decent society, who, if an unmarried miscegenator, is the familiar friend of some Dinah and coal-black Rose. But suppose him to have a decent family, to what degradation does his contemptible purpose of espionage and his self-assured Negro protectorate reduce them—with only sooty blacks and ebony maids for their friends and companions, and with the pleasant prospect before him and them of being confined to this color in his

selection of sons and daughters-in-law.

It is clear that educating Germans into democracy cannot be done either by foreign teachers or by German exiles. In reference to "Axis Re-Education," W. B. Langsdorff says correctly: "... first ... education cannot be coercive from the outside; second ... it must represent the national culture and be under the direction of national leaders; third ... it cannot be provided by 'missionary' [read carpet-bagger] teachers from the United States or others of the United Nations." If Southerners after 1865 did not welcome "do-gooders" from the North (who were their own fellow citizens), Germans will be even more opposed to the ministrations of outside educators.

The task will have to be handled with great tact: schoolbooks will of course be purged of Nazi and super-race ideas, and democratic teachers must be selected and encouraged. Frank M. Dunbaugh, formerly with MG in Germany, is quite optimistic about the possibility of success in educating German youth into democracy, although he suggests that perhaps the purging of textbooks and teachers may go too far: "The de-Nazification of the schools has been so thorough that 95 per cent of the teachers are fusty oldsters. From Berlin, from Frankfurt, from Munich, from Ansbach, one thought is drummed into their heads: 'Say nothing, allow no discussion that might be construed as stemming from Nazi ideology.' They hardly dare mention any world event since 1800. What can they offer to stir the souls and ambitions of their hope-starved students?"³

Above all, Americans should set a good example. But setting a good example is one of the difficulties. Necessary as the army is for the control of Germany, it is education's worst enemy. After all, education in democracy means more than formal schooling and denazified textbooks. Example is even more important and yet many American soldiers in Germany are not the best exemplars of democracy. Black market operations, drunken sprees, sex looseness, and even looting, are not the finest arguments in German eyes for the worth of democracy. The original American invaders were usually careless enough about their actions, but

returned soldiers admit they were disturbed at the caliber of the replacements.

A German economist told Shepard Stone: "In recent months many of the best Americans have gone back home. Who, with a few exceptions, have remained? Those Americans who had small jobs at home but big ones here. And others who think they can make a good thing out of their stay here." Stone gives many instances of the unfortunate actions of some Americans. In one case, "... eighteen Germans have had to give way to two Americans who wanted a house for themselves and their girls; furnishings have been looted." Stone's conclusions about success in swinging Germans to democracy are not too optimistic. Most Germans, he reported, have not changed psychologically, and too many Americans are "feathering their own nests, living high-handedly. They are a bad example to Germans and a discredit to their country."⁴

Military occupation is a thankless task and has always led to ill will and hatred between troops and civilians. If this friction does not produce a "Boston Massacre," it results in some species of "woman order" such as General Butler issued in New Orleans, or non-fraternization rules which were tried in the early part of the American occupation of Germany. If the Germans are to be given an education in the delights of democracy, the army must be kept out of sight as much as possible, although ready for any emergency.

The success of American administrators in creating a stable, democratic Germany, in the United States zone at least, depends a great deal upon a frank recognition that a social, political, and economic revolution has been taking place in Germany since 1945. Displacement of thousands of Nazis and favor shown to the democratic elements are evidence of the social and political phases of this revolution. The economic aspect includes denazification of trusts and cartels. This process, if kept in the right groove, is desirable; in fact the victors are responsible for it because they have aimed at permanently unseating the militarists, Nazis, and other enemies of democracy. This time the

³ *The Rotarian*, February, 1947.

⁴ *The New York Times Magazine*, January 26, 1947.

revolution must really do the job. For, as has been observed many times since 1918, the revolution of that year stopped in midstream and did not go far enough. Instead of pulverizing the militarists and nationalists forever, the revolution resulted in a weak compromise which Hitler easily overturned.

The Russians in their zone are carrying the revolution to its logical conclusion by a wholesale uprooting of the Junkers and by the division of their estates among the common people. The American-sponsored revolution aims to stop far short of this; indeed the Americans are frowning upon the socialization of the chief industries by the British in their zone. Furthermore, the rise of a spirit of forgiveness, already discussed, would indicate that the Americans have gone about as far as they intend. Have they gone far enough? Only time will tell.

The *sine qua non* is to maintain control of this revolution and to keep it going in the direction of democracy. It must be protected from sovietization by the extreme Left and from counter-revolution by former Nazis. This is of the essence if the American experiment is to succeed. The International Committee for the Study of European Questions declared that the chief danger lay in counter-revolution by the Nazis who would use for their own purposes the very democratic governments that are being set up, just as they did with the democratic processes of the Weimar Republic. In the words of Mallory Browne, summarizing the report: "The Nazi party has recovered from the first shock of Germany's defeat and is quietly reorganizing for return to power through control of democratic institutions set up by the Allies." MG at once denied the existence of any subversive activities. MG is probably correct in saying that no widespread movements have so far been started. But in a similar way, the displaced Southerners, after 1867, working under the very constitutions which the new electorate had established for its own defense, recaptured the state governments from the radicals.

The basic reason for the failure of military reconstruction after 1867 was that it could not be kept within reasonable limits and that it went into the extremes of Negro rule and vicious government. The pendulum then swung to the opposite extreme of Negro disfranchise-

ment. Whether the Americans have the skill and experience to accomplish their middle-of-the-road goals or whether circumstances over which they have no control will prevent the realization of those goals in Germany it is too early to say.

One possible circumstance over which they may have no control is Russian intransigence. Says Louis Fischer:

Germany will remain under foreign occupation for many years. I can predict the exact date when the American and British armies will be withdrawn: the day after the Russian army is withdrawn. Western troops will stay because, if they left, Russia would move in and all Germany would succumb to Stalinist totalitarianism. Communism would be on the Rhine and look across to a France which would then be really threatened from within and without.

At all events, revolutions are dangerous articles to handle because they usually get out of control. The social revolution which was imposed upon the South by the victor in the Civil War—disorganization of the plantation economy by the loss of slave labor, enfranchisement of several millions of blacks, and disfranchisement of many of their former masters—produced all kinds of evils. In the post-war period these evils included misrule by the new state governments, disorder by the KKK, and heightened race friction. But the untoward effects did not end with reconstruction.

Today the country still faces aftermaths like the poll tax, filibustering by Southern Senators, the white primary, and the like. By the same token, the revolution being carried out by the victors in Germany will probably engender aftermaths which will be present for many years to come. The issue, so far as the United States is concerned, can be stated as follows: Supposing that some sort of *modus operandi* can be worked out with Russia (which is far from certain), can American occupation authorities, unskilled and inexperienced in such work, keep their hands on the throttle of the revolution long enough to enable the new electorate to mature so that it can take hold of the throttle itself? The failure to achieve that aim in Reconstruction times does not argue that failure is inevitable now, but it does suggest that the task will be a herculean one.

Introduction of History into the American College Curriculum

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From the beginning of higher education in America, the teaching of history formed at least a small part of the course of study. In 1642, when Henry Dunster, president of Harvard formulated the first college curriculum in America, he included history as a subject to be "given an hour each Saturday afternoon during the winter term."¹ Benjamin Franklin in his *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania*, published in 1749, suggested the inclusion of history among the subjects to be offered in the Academy in Philadelphia. When the Academy was expanded into a college in 1756, Preceptor LeCler's "Compend of History," was included in the curriculum.²

Columbia College in New York claims the honor of being the first American institution to recognize history as worthy of a professional chair. According to an old broadside preserved in the Columbia library, John Goss, between 1784 and 1795, taught a sophomore course three times a week described as follows:

The Globe in respect to all general matters, Rise, extent, and fall of ancient empires; chronology as low as the fall of the Roman empire; present state of the world; origin of the present states and kingdoms—their extent, power, commerce, religion, and customs; modern chronology.³

According to H. B. Adams, the course taught by Goss was history—ancient, geographical, political, modern.⁴

One might question the Columbia claim, how-

ever. When the Holyoke administration at Harvard in 1767 did away with the ancient system of each tutor taking a class through all subjects in the curriculum, the four tutors constituting the faculty became "specialists." To one was assigned natural philosophy, mathematics, astronomy, and geography, and he, as did Goss, may have taught history in connection with the subject.⁵

When the trustees of Yale University set up the office of president at that institution, they included among his duties, "instructing the Senior Class in Mental and Moral Philosophy. In accepting the office in 1777, Reverend Stiles expressed a desire for special recognition of additional instruction he proposed to give, and accordingly was constituted Professor of Ecclesiastical History, as well as President, both offices he retained until his death."⁶

It would appear, then, that Columbia's claim might better be substantiated by the fact that provision for the teaching of history was made in the Charter of the institution, a fact, perhaps, overlooked by a majority of historians. To quote from the charter:

. . . A serious, virtuous and industrious Course of Life, being first provided for, it is further the Design of this College, to instruct and perfect the Youth in the Learned Languages, and in the Arts of reasoning exactly, of writing correctly, and speaking eloquently; and in the Arts of numbering and measuring; of Surveying and Navigation; of Geography and History . . .⁷

The Columbia claim has merit if by history

¹ Freeman Butts, *The College Charts Its Course* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1939), p. 47.

² Thomas Harrison Montgomery, *A History of the University of Pennsylvania* (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs Company, 1900), p. 239.

³ *History of Columbia University, 1754-1904* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1904), p. 444.

⁴ H. B. Adams, *The Study of History in American Colleges*, United States Bureau of Education, *Circular of Information*, No. 2, 1887, p. 60.

⁵ S. E. Morrison, *Three Centuries of Harvard* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1937), p. 89. (Inference is by writer; reference to Morrison is for information regarding revisions only.)

⁶ Franklin B. Dexter, *Yale University* (New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1887), p. 47.

⁷ *History of Columbia University*, p. 444.

is meant history other than ecclesiastical and church history.⁸ There is an absence of any reference to the subject in the early curriculums of William and Mary College, founded in 1693, and of the other colleges founded prior to 1770, except that of Yale. The revisions of the Harvard curriculum in 1737 and 1767 make no mention of the subject. And Jefferson did not include history in his revision of the William and Mary curriculum in 1779.⁹

From these humble beginnings to the close of the first third of the nineteenth century, history was usually the adjunct either of the classical or the theological chair. At the College of New Jersey (Princeton) the professor of theology, besides preaching on the Sabbath, attended a class in Hebrew three times a week, and on the other two days he delivered lectures on theology and ecclesiastical history.¹⁰ In an announcement to the Board of Trustees concerning the restoration of the college, following its burning in 1802, the College of New Jersey approved for publication the following statement prepared by President Smith:

It is considered by the Trustees as an object of primary importance in the course of education, to impress upon the minds of studious youth just sentiments of the nature, as well as the full conviction of the truth of religion, as being the surest basis of the public morals . . . On the days of the week, other than the Sabbath, the classes will attend lectures by the different Professors, the one of the several branches of Speculative and Practical Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, Chemistry, and Natural History, the other on the Elements of Logic, of Belles Lettres, of *History and Moral Political Science*.¹¹

⁸ The exception in regard to ecclesiastical and church history must be made, for among the speakers to appear at the College of New Jersey (Princeton) in 1797 was the Reverend Matthew LaTue Rerrine, Professor of Sacred Literature and Church History in the Theological Seminary at New Brunswick, New Jersey. See John McLean, *History of the College of New Jersey (Princeton University)*, (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott and Company, 1887), p. 113.

⁹ An exhaustive search of the histories and other literature beginning on the founding and early period of colleges established between 1693 and 1769 was made. No reference is found regarding history at Brown, Rutgers, Dartmouth, Amherst, etc.

¹⁰ John McLean, *History of the College of New Jersey*, p. 55.

At Columbia in 1810 the professor of languages was "to instruct the Sophomore Class in Geography and History; the Junior Class in Geography, History and Chronology, in addition to Latin and Greek." And in the reorganization of the college that same year, provision was made for five professors, "one of whom was to be Professor of Geography and History."¹²

Thus the amount of history given during these early decades of American higher education was meager; and general history, both ancient and modern found little place among the subjects of the college curriculum.

From the classical and ecclesiastical tradition, history came to occupy a place in the department of philosophy in most colleges. At the University of North Carolina in 1796 provision was made for five professors, one of whom should instruct the youth in "Moral and Political Philosophy, and History."¹³ At the University of South Carolina, under Francis Leiber (1830) the teaching of history was also a part of political philosophy and political science.¹⁴ In 1830-1831, at Princeton, it was assigned "to the Professor of Natural Philosophy, Astronomy, and Political Economy."¹⁵ Delaware College in its curriculum in 1834 included a study of Say's *Political Economy* consisting of recitations from ancient and modern history; in 1835 it added French's *Greek Historians and Philosophers*.¹⁶ How long this pattern existed cannot be determined, but it is reasonable to suppose that it existed as the dominant pattern until late in the century, for as late as 1846 it still remained at Princeton, Columbia, and other universities and colleges. It appears that a new pattern was being set at Dartmouth, when in 1841 Dr. William Cogswell was "brought into the faculty under the unusual title of Professor of National Education and History."¹⁷

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 65.

¹² *History of Columbia University*, pp. 91-92.

¹³ *Sketches of the History of the University of North Carolina* (Chapel Hill: Published by the University, 1889), p. 42.

¹⁴ Charles F. Thwing, *A History of Higher Education in America* (New York: Appleton Company, 1906), p. 304.

¹⁵ John McLean, *History of the College of New Jersey*, p. 285.

¹⁶ Lyman P. Powell, "History of Education in Delaware," United States Bureau of Education, *Circular of Information*, No. 3, 1893, p. 28.

The separation of history as a distinct subject of the curriculum had its beginning about 1820, for the publication of the first course of instruction in America at Yale in 1822 lists "General History, Ancient and Modern" as a distinct subject of the curriculum of that institution.¹⁸

At Dartmouth, in 1822, history was given for one term in the sophomore year; but rhetoric was taught for one term in the freshman and sophomore years by the same professor.¹⁹ In 1826 the Amherst Faculty recommended to the Board of Trustees that regard be given to modern history, especially the history of the Puritans. In the adoption of the faculty recommendation, however, the trustees also included ancient history as an elective.²⁰ At the University of Virginia, in 1832, the Board of Visitors instructed Professor Blatterman "to make his weekly reports promptly and accurately; to instruct his senior classes in the literatures of the languages taught by him; and to resume his lectures on modern history and geography that he had hitherto been slighting in the discharge of his duties." They concluded that "the subjects in the School of Modern Languages were too numerous . . . the literatures of the four nations shall be embraced in topics tri-weekly, by lectures; and modern history and political relations discussed in a separate course."²¹

According to Thwing, the first chair of history in an American college was established at William and Mary in 1822.²² There appears little, however, to verify the statement, and it is generally agreed that Harvard in establishing in 1838 its first professorship of history, marked the first distinct endowment of history in any American college. According to Morrison:

¹⁷ John King Lord, *History of Dartmouth College* (Concord, New Hampshire: The Rumford Press, 1913), p. 263.

¹⁸ H. B. Adams, *The Study of History in American Colleges*, p. 60.

¹⁹ John King Lord, *History of Dartmouth College*, p. 201.

²⁰ W. S. Tyler, *History of Amherst College* (Springfield, Mass.: Clark W. Bryan Company, 1873), pp. 170-171.

²¹ Phillip Alexander Bruce, *History of Virginia* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1920), p. 92.

²² Charles F. Thwing, *History of Higher Education*, p. 305.

Reverend Jared Sparks was appointed to the new McLean Professor of American and Modern History in 1838, after a notable career as minister, editor, and historian . . . He insisted on being allowed to instruct by lectures, assigned readings, and essays, rather than by set recitations, and in having eight months out of every twelve free for his researches in European and American archives. Sparks gave the first courses in American History in any university, and although his professorship proved to be a false dawn for modern history it was none the less potent.²³

The honor claimed by Harvard should perhaps be shared with the University of South Carolina, where in 1837, freshmen studied ancient history to the Peloponnesian Wars; sophomores, to Alexander the Great; juniors, took modern and French history, and English history to James I; and seniors attended lectures in political economy. In 1843, the program was revised so that freshmen studied ancient history and sophomores, the history of the Middle Ages. Juniors, were required to take modern history, political economy and political ethics.²⁴ It would appear that the University of South Carolina, under the leadership of Leiber, a great German scholar, had the most advanced offerings in history in any college or university at that time.

It was not without difficulty that history was assured a place of security among its competitors subjects. President King, at Columbia, suggested the establishment of a chair of American history in September 1850, which "after consideration was turned down by the Board."²⁵ Meanwhile, the establishment of a Department of History and English Literature at Michigan in 1855 gave academic recognition to the subject. The revised statute adopted by the Columbia University Board in 1857 provided for a "Department of Jurisprudence in which Modern History, Political Economy, and allied subjects shall be given great prominence."²⁶ Professor Francis Leiber of the Uni-

²³ S. E. Morrison, *Three Centuries of Harvard*, p. 264.

²⁴ *History of Higher Education in South Carolina*, United States Bureau of Education Circular of Information, No. 3, 1888, p. 176.

²⁵ *History of Columbia University*, p. 125.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 134.

versity of South Carolina, the greatest teacher of political science and history of that time, was invited to fill the newly created position, "Professor of History and Political Science."²⁷

A professorship in history was established at Yale in 1865, Princeton resumed the teaching of history in 1864, and colleges and universities established or founded during this period included it in their curriculums. Thus by 1870,

it appears that history as a subject in the colleges curriculum had won general acceptance in most sections of the United States, if the generalization is sound that Michigan typifies Mid-Western institutions and South Carolina, Virginia and William and Mary typify the South.

²⁷ Sister Mary Carmel McLellan, *The Evolution and Evaluation of the History Curriculum of the Secondary School*, p. 83.

Current Problems of Elementary Teachers in the Social Studies

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INTRODUCTION

If the social studies in the elementary school are to make a maximum contribution to the education of children in a democracy, serious attention must be given to the instructional problems of teachers. A well-designed social studies program is ineffectual unless the teachers' problems are solved as they arise. The influx of many emergency teachers into the elementary schools of the nation during the past few years has made this a crucial consideration at the present time.

This study reports several current problems of elementary teachers in the social studies evaluated as to relative importance. The findings throw some light on current needs of elementary teachers and suggest topics to include in both pre-service and in-service education programs. The procedure used in this study suggests a technique which may be used to determine the specific problems of social studies teachers in a particular school or school system.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

The study was begun by compiling a list of the actual questions raised by teachers in the social studies committee meetings, teachers' meetings, institutes, and workshops; twenty-three meetings were attended by the writer. To the list of questions raised in meetings were added several questions which arose in individual conferences with teachers and supervisors.

A list of 81 items was thus compiled for further study.

The list of selected questions was submitted to 200 elementary school authorities for evaluation. Included in the group were elementary principals, supervisors, state directors of elementary education, and curriculum directors. All of them can be regarded as having a first-hand knowledge of the current problems of elementary teachers. They were asked to evaluate each question as to relative importance to elementary teachers under their supervision. It was possible to assign ratings varying in degree from no importance to utmost importance. Replies were received from 122 individuals in 38 states.

Weighted ratings of the relative importance of the questions have been computed on the basis of the average of the ratings assigned to each item. Possible limits of variation are from 0 indicating no importance, to 100 indicating utmost importance. Since the ratings vary from 44 to 99, all the problems reported in the study may be considered to be of from moderate to utmost importance according to the participants in this study.

No special claims are made for the validity of the categories used for classifying the questions in the tables below. Several of them could be assigned to two or more categories. Anyone using the questions to determine those most

important to a given group of teachers should arrange them in accordance with the demands of the particular situation in which they are to be used.

The problems in question form as stated by the teachers are presented below in eight general categories. The categories containing the problems of greatest relative importance have been placed at the beginning of the table. The problems are arranged within each category in descending order of importance according to the weighted ratings.

PROBLEMS RELATED TO MAJOR OUTCOMES

The most crucial problems of elementary teachers in the social studies are those dealing with a clear definition of the purposes of the social studies in a democracy. This fact is indicated by the relatively high ratings given to the problems listed below; all have ratings of 84 or above.

<i>Problems</i>	<i>Weighted Ratings</i>
1. What is the function of the social studies in a democracy?	99
2. What contributions can the social studies make to child growth and development?	97
3. What attitudes and appreciations should be developed in the social studies?	95
4. What is the function of the social studies in your community?	93
5. What are the specific purposes of the social studies?	88
6. What basic concepts, understandings and generalizations should be developed in the social studies?	88
7. What specific concepts, knowledges and information should be taught in the social studies?	87
8. What skills and abilities should be developed in the social studies?	84

These problems suggest that real need exists for the development of a clear and practical statement of social studies goals. Abstract formulations of goals are ineffectual; they are not used because they are not understood, according to the respondents in this study. Social studies goals must be redefined in relation to child growth characteristics and actually used in planning, in selecting procedures and materials, and in evaluating the social study program. This requires a practical and functional definition of goals—a difficult but essential task in both pre-service and in-service edu-

cation programs.

PROBLEMS RELATED TO GENERAL PROCEDURES

The teachers' need for procedures to be used in achieving the major goals in the social studies is nearly as crucial as the need for clarifying goals, according to ratings given to problems in this category. This is a reasonable expectation, for it avails little to set up statements of goals without careful consideration to the means for achieving them.

<i>Problems</i>	<i>Weighted Ratings</i>
1. What practical procedures may be used to build racial tolerance and to overcome prejudices?	90
2. What practical procedures may be used to build attitudes of cooperation, self-respect, social sensitivity, etc.?	89
3. How can the teacher translate the major purposes of the social studies into child thinking and language?	88
4. What are some ways of utilizing the community in the social studies?	88
5. What are some ways children can secure ideas and information besides reading and "being talked" at?	86
6. What practical procedures may be used to develop democratic behavior? 86	
7. What practical procedures may be used to develop understandings and generalizations in the social studies? 86	
8. What practical procedures may be used to build concepts and vocabulary in the social studies?	84
9. What practical procedures may be used to develop and improve study skills and reading in the social studies? 83	

Several significant current emphases in many elementary schools appear to be reflected in the above ratings. Building social attitudes, developing democratic behavior and citizenship, overcoming prejudices, improving critical thinking, and developing concepts and understandings are being stressed in many school systems at the present time. Current interest in inter-group education also appears to be reflected in the above ratings.

The problem of translating the major purposes of the social studies into child thinking, behavior, and language (number one) deserves special mention. Visitations to classrooms in elementary schools reveal that frequently there is a wide gap between the purposes of the social studies, the teacher's purposes, and the child's purposes. Procedures for developing meaningful pupil purposes must be developed

by teachers if this situation is to be avoided. Obviously, a prerequisite to this is a functional conception of social studies goals by teachers themselves.

PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE TEACHER'S SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL BACKGROUNDS

Effective social studies teaching is to a large degree dependent upon the teachers' social and psychological backgrounds of understanding. Unless the implications of child growth characteristics are understood by the teacher, and unless the teacher is aware of cultural reality and its impact upon the child and the curriculum, little progress will be made in improving social studies programs. That this is an important current need of many elementary teachers is indicated by the ratings given to the following questions:

<i>Problems</i>	<i>Weighted Ratings</i>
1. What key democratic values should the social studies teacher keep in mind?	91
2. What are the practical implications of child growth characteristics for the teacher of the social studies?	90
3. How do children build social concepts and understandings?	89
4. How do children develop social attitudes, procedures and stereotypes?	89
5. What are the implications of recent social and scientific changes for the social studies teacher?	86
6. What does research say about the social opinions of teachers in general?	53
7. To what extent should the community dictate the teacher's social attitudes?	46

Current emphasis upon the implications of child growth characteristics for social studies is evident in several of the items above. Current concern about the atomic age, inter-group problems, and community relations is likewise apparent.

The last two items regarding community attitudes and the social attitudes of teachers are sometimes overlooked in both in-service and pre-service programs. They should be explored carefully, however, because of the impact which teacher attitudes and community influences have upon the social studies. The reaction against social studies which has arisen in many different communities gives special significance to these problems at the present time.

PROBLEMS RELATED TO EVALUATION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Real difficulties arise in social studies instruction in connection with evaluation. The many intangible outcomes which are of basic importance in the social studies are quite difficult to evaluate. In addition to this, programs of evaluation in many school systems are set up with exclusive reference to learning in skill areas. The high ratings given in this area suggest that problems of evaluation should be given immediate attention.

<i>Problems</i>	<i>Weighted Ratings</i>
1. How can the teacher evaluate her unit and teaching methods in terms of child growth and development?	93
2. How can the teacher evaluate the growth of attitudes, appreciations, and understandings in the social studies?	90
3. How can the teacher do practical evaluation of the growth of democratic behavior in the elementary school?	89
4. What techniques can be used to get students to do self-evaluation?	89
5. What guiding principles should be kept in mind in evaluation?	86
6. How should the teacher conduct a pupil evaluation discussion?	86
7. What practical procedures and devices can be used in evaluation?	82
8. What is the difference between sharing and evaluation in the social studies?	57

Three needs run through the items listed above. The first is need for a practical definition of goals in terms of child behaviors so that teachers may evaluate the major social studies outcomes in a concrete, specific manner. The second is need for guiding principles, techniques, and instruments of evaluation which the teacher may use in the instructional program. The third is need for supervisory assistance in interpreting and readjusting the social studies program in terms of the findings revealed through evaluation. These three needs should be given thorough consideration in both pre-service and in-service programs.

PROBLEMS RELATED TO ORGANIZATION AND UNITS OF WORK

Many of the emergency teachers who recently have returned to positions in elementary schools probably are using unit-of-work organization in the social studies for the first time. The problems involved in unit planning

and teaching and in the organization of a sequential program pose real difficulties for more experienced teachers as well as for newcomers. Although these problems in general are rated a little less crucial in relative importance than preceding ones, they are given sufficiently high ratings to warrant serious consideration. Social studies programs will fail completely if problems in this area are neglected.

<i>Problems</i>	<i>Weighted Ratings</i>
1. What types of learning experiences should be provided in a unit?.....	87
2. What guiding principles should be kept in mind in organizing the social studies?	86
3. What should the teacher do in planning units?	85
4. What criteria should the teacher use for selecting a unit to be used with her class?	84
5. What methods and principles should be used to guide children through a unit?	82
6. How should the social studies be organized?	80
7. What types of culminating activities should be used in the social studies?	76
8. What kinds of different materials should be provided in a unit?	76
9. What practical procedures may be used to approach or start a unit?..	76
10. What units should be taught at different levels?	70
11. Why teach social studies instead of specific subjects such as geography, civics, and history?	66
12. Should a teacher repeat the same units year after year?	55

PROBLEMS RELATED TO USE OF MATERIAL AIDS

Dynamic social studies programs draw upon a wide variety of materials in addition to books. During the war the value of various types of audio-visual aids was clearly demonstrated. Many supplementary materials are now being provided through regular school channels and through commercial establishments as free materials. Such material must be selected wisely and used with special reference to social studies goals. The questions below are illustrative of problems which should be attacked in this area.

<i>Problems</i>	<i>Weighted Ratings</i>
1. How can easier reading materials be developed for use in the social studies?	85

2. How should motion pictures and film strips be used?	78
3. What kinds of different materials should be provided in a unit?	76
4. How should maps, globes, and atlases be used?	73
5. How should dictionaries, encyclopedias, and supplementary references be used?	72
6. How should the radio and recordings be used?	72
7. What use should be made of free materials?	69
8. What art and construction materials are needed in different units?	69
9. What types of construction should be used in the social studies?.....	56
10. Should workbooks be used in the social studies?	42

PROBLEMS RELATED TO USING OTHER FIELDS OF LEARNING IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A modern social studies program draws upon many fields of learning. The goals of the social studies in a democracy cannot be fully achieved unless this is done. Problems which arise in this regard are closely related to problems of unit planning and should be considered fully in unit construction. They are separated here for purposes of emphasis only.

<i>Problems</i>	<i>Weighted Ratings</i>
1. How should reading and language be used in the social studies?.....	84
2. How should health, safety and physical education be used in the social studies?	80
3. How should science be used in the social studies?	76
4. How should art and music be used in the social studies?	74
5. How should history, geography, and civics be used in a unified social studies?	74

PROBLEMS RELATED TO VARIOUS SPECIFIC METHODS AND DEVICES

The last category of problems consists of many different difficulties which must be considered as they arise. Although some of them are rated somewhat lower than preceding problems, they are quite important to individual teachers in many school systems. A lack of understanding of them results in lowered efficiency insofar as social learning is concerned. Classroom visitations reveal that many of them such as dramatic play and construction need specific and immediate attention at the present time.

<i>Problems</i>	<i>Weighted Ratings</i>
1. How should planning periods be used in the social studies?	83
2. How can an appreciation of the contributions of other cultures be developed?	82
3. How should the teacher conduct a discussion period?	80
4. How should work periods be used in the social studies?	80
5. How should current events be used?	80
6. What should the teacher do in guiding children through an arranged environment?	78
7. How should excursions be used?....	78
8. How should an environment be arranged in the social studies?.....	77
9. How should a research period be used in the social studies?	75
10. How should biographies and stories of great men be used in the social studies?	69
11. How should dramatic play and block play be used in the social studies?..	69
12. What is the place of discussion of controversial issues in the social studies?	69
13. How should plays and pageants be used in the social studies?	68
14. What criteria should be used to select materials to put into a kit of teaching materials dealing with a specific topic?	56
15. How may charts be used?	52
16. How should a kit of teaching materials be organized?	51
17. How may different kinds of maps (global, relief, flat) be made?	46
18. How may time lines be made?	44

The foregoing list of problems constitutes a real challenge to those interested in improving the social studies in the elementary school. Both pre-service and in-service education programs should be concerned about helping teachers gain a functional understanding of them.

Several cautions, however, should be kept in mind in the consideration of such a list.

First, problems vary from teacher to teacher and from school to school, both as to kind and to degree of relative importance. If specific

problems and their relative importance are to be determined in a given situation they must be given specific investigation in that situation.

Second, the problems are a compilation of actual questions raised by teachers. They vary in terms of specificity, directness, and depth of meaning. For example, "What is the function of the social studies in a Democracy?" is on a different level from "How may time lines be made?"

Third, the list is suggestive but not all inclusive. Undoubtedly, several other social studies problems of importance to elementary teachers might have been included or substituted for ones used in this study.

Some general conclusions regarding current instructional problems of elementary teachers, however, appear to be justified in light of data collected in this study.

1. Elementary teachers currently are confronted with a wide range of social studies instructional problems deserving of serious and immediate consideration.

2. The problems rated as being of greatest importance in this study are those related to major outcomes, general procedures, evaluation, and the teacher's social and psychological background of understanding.

3. Rated as being of considerable but somewhat less importance than the preceding categories of problems are those related to the use of various specific procedures and devices, use of material aids, organization and unit planning, and use of other subject matter fields in the social studies.

4. Current emphasis in many school systems upon implications of child growth and development for curriculum planning, democratic behavior and citizenship, inter-group education, social concepts and understandings, study skills, and reading appear to be reflected in the ratings of importance given to several items.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Graham Junior-Senior High School, Mount Vernon, New York

FILMS

"Peoples of the Soviet Union": This 33 minute, black and white, 16 mm. sound movie, picturing the many racial groups which make up the Soviet Union, is now available. For rental at nominal fees, consult International Film Foundation, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York City.

"Americans All": This 16 mm., black and white, sound film shows how a forward-looking city like Springfield, Mass., offers an inspiring plan to other communities for combating racial and religious prejudices, and how racial issues are met by schools and towns. Write to March of Time, 369 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, N. Y.

"Seas of Destiny": This 16 mm. sound film, black and white, is the grim and tragic story of hunger and destitution which follows war. Write to Ideal Pictures Corporation, 28 East 8th Street, Chicago 5, Illinois.

"Man—One Family": Discusses widely-accepted beliefs, and racial distinctions, emphasizing that many so-called national characteristics are common to all mankind, thus refuting the theory of a master race. 16 mm. 2 reels, 17 minutes, black and white, daily rental \$3.00. "The House I Live In" stars Frank Sinatra who makes a powerful emotional appeal for racial and democratic tolerance. 1 reel, 16 mm. sound film, black and white. "The World We Want to Live In," a 16 mm. sound film, sponsored by the National Conference of Christians and Jews, dramatically presents a message to every American to preserve national unity by combating religious and racial intolerance. 1 reel, black and white, daily rental \$2.00. These three films can be obtained from Ideal Pictures Corporation, 28 East 8th Street, Chicago, Illinois.

"Lever Age": This new 16 mm. sound-film (black and white, 20 min.) is one of the series on the oil industry. It's a story of the simple lever and how it developed into the complex

gears of our industrial age. It is of interest to social science classes. Free. Write to Shell Oil Company, New York City.

"The Story of Oil": This new 16 mm. film (black and white) tells the story of oil from the stone age to the present. Free. Write to Coca-Cola Company, New York City.

"The Story of Money": This 16mm. sound film (2 reels, 16 min.) traces the history of present-day monetary systems from the earliest days of barter right up to the complexities of modern banking. The well-informed commentary and imaginative camera work combine to form a fascinating presentation of this romantic story. It is of great value and interest for social science classes. Write to International Film Bureau, Inc., 84 East Randolph Street, Chicago, Illinois.

"Fight for Life": This 16 mm. sound film (2 reels, 17 min.) is now available. It depicts the work being done by Britain in raising the African standard of living to the modern level. Classes studying Great Britain will find it of great interest. Write to British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y.

"General Election": This 16 mm. sound film (2 reels, 20 minutes) traces the mechanism of an election in Britain from its inception to its final conclusion. The film was made in Kettering during the election of 1945, and highlights various sections of the public being coaxed and cajoled into voting for the right man. Write British Information Services for further details.

SLIDES

New color slides of the world taken within the past two years are available on Palestine, Italy, North Africa, England, Greenland, Alaska, Hawaii, Pacific Islands, Japan, India, China. Study guides are furnished with every set. Write for catalog to Travelore Films, 259 East First Street, Salt Lake City 1, Utah.

POSTERS, CHARTS AND OTHER AIDS

"United Nations Poster": This poster illustrates the four purposes of the U.N. as outlined in the preamble to its charter. Free. Write to General Mills, Inc., 400 Second Avenue, South, Minneapolis 1, Minn.

"Denmark": This is a pictorial presentation of an interesting country. Free. Write to Danish Information Office, 15 Moore Street, New York City.

"China": Interesting aids for use in social studies, geography, etc. are available on this country. Free. Write to Division of American Activities, United Service to China, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.

"Australia": Posters are available on this country. Free. Australian News and Information Bureau, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, N. Y.

"United Nations": Charts, illustrating the structure and organization of the departments of the U.N. are now available. Write to United Nations Dept. of Public Information, Box 1000, New York City.

"Races of Mankind": This 22" x 17" poster is based on the pamphlet, "Races of Mankind." Write to Anti-Defamation League, 100 North LaSalle Street, Chicago 2, Illinois.

"Races of the World and Where They Live": This 42" x 51" poster is drawn from the sculpture by Melvina Hoffman. Price is \$1.00. Write to Field Museum, Chicago, Illinois.

"World Trade": The State Department supplies free 15 charts on the role of world trade in our economy. The posters are clear, concise, and simple . . . showing the dangers of economic warfare, cartels, etc. Write the Division of Public Liaison, State Department, Washington, D. C.

RADIO

Columbia Broadcasting System, Wrigley Building, Chicago, Illinois, will send on request a 1947 Calendar Manual: "C.B.S. American School of the Air." Contains programs of interest to social study classes.

"World Security Workshop": WENR, 9:00-9:30 P.M. (C.S.T.) Thursday. This program may be heard through the American Broadcasting Company.

"University of Chicago Round Table": WMAQ, 12:30-1 P.M. (C.S.T.), Sunday. This

program may be heard through the National Broadcasting Company.

"Youth Asks the Government": American Broadcasting Company, 1-1:30 P.M. (E.S.T.). Washington children interrogate members of Congress, department heads, and administrative leaders on the working of government branches.

"Our Foreign Policy": University of the Air, over N.B.C. stations, 7-7:30 P.M. (E.S.T.). Representatives of State Department, members of Congress, and others discuss foreign policy issues. Copies of broadcast are available.

"World Neighbors": American School of the Air, over Columbia Broadcasting System, 5-5:50 P.M. (E.S.T.). Information in dramatic form about our fellow men in other countries.

"Story Behind the Headlines": N.B.C. program, 11:15-11:30 P.M. (E.S.T.). American Historical Society, and Caesar Saerchinger analyze historical significance of each week's events.

RECORDINGS

"Americans All: Immigrants All": Series of 24 programs, 30 minutes each. \$3.75 per program in 33 1/3 rpm; \$4.75 per program in 78 rpm. Federal Radio Educational Committee, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

This series begins with our colonial heritage, continues with the later immigrants, and the last nine programs cover such subjects as Winning the Freedom, Closing Frontiers, Contributions in Industry, etc.

"Ballad for Americans": 2 discs, 12 minutes; 78 rpm, Victor Album, P-20, 2 at \$1.50 each. Paul Robeson and chorus effectively sing John La Touche's poem which depicts many peoples of the United States working for the common goals of freedom, democracy, and liberty.

"The State Department Speaks": Recordings are available now. Write to Gertrude Broderick, Transcription Exchange, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C. Good for social studies.

"The Atomic Bomb and Peace-Time Uses of Atomic Energy": Contains two 12-inch records each, 78 rpm; teachers' manual; 50 student handbooks; school paper story with mats; and phonographic needles. For sale, School Broadcast Conference, 228 N. LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

HIGH SCHOOL ATHLETICS

In *The Clearing House* for February, Dr. Thomas E. Robinson, Superintendent of Schools for Mercer County, N. J., had an excellent article on the subject of eligibility requirements for athletics. It struck sharply at one of the major inconsistencies in educational practice, and should cause many people to think more carefully about it. The whole question of the proper place of interscholastic athletics in the school curriculum is confused by tradition, prejudice, and the attitude of the public. A great deal of clear thinking is required to look at it logically.

The usual situation, as Dr. Robinson brings out, may be summarized in this way: athletics are popular; therefore they are used as a club to try to drive a pupil into doing better work in the rest of the school program. We resent it when laymen criticize extra-curricular activities as "frills"; we say that they have an important educational value. Yet we ourselves treat athletics as unnecessary by saying that the pupil who does not pass in other subjects cannot play games. No one has ever suggested that the boy who cannot play a satisfactory game of baseball should be barred from taking English or geometry, nor is the passing of one academic subject a prerequisite for taking another at the same time. In actual practice, we are saying that athletics are a "frill" of which a pupil may be deprived without injury as a penalty for poor work in other parts of the curriculum. As a matter of fact, we usually make the inconsistency greater by singling athletics out from the whole extra-class program in this way. Not many schools face the facts squarely enough to make ineligibility apply to dramatics, publications, orchestra, class and school organizations, and all the other features of the modern curriculum of which we are so proud.

Dr. Robinson believes, as do most other educators, that intramural athletics are more de-

sirable in a school program than interscholastic contests, but the latter with all their undoubted faults are here to stay. Since this is true, we should accept the logic of the situation and see to it that the pupil whose abilities lie in that direction has as much opportunity to use them as the pupil who is fond of dramatics or music or mathematics.

One of the best justifications for athletic eligibility requirements is that it prevents public pressure or a coach's ambition from encouraging "tramp" athletes and "ringers." This object could just as well be accomplished by strict regulations about residence in the district, attendance at school, and enrollment in a normally complete program of studies. If it becomes apparent that a pupil is attending school solely for the purpose of playing in athletics and has no desire or intention of working in any other subject, this attitude must either be corrected by good guidance or the pupil should be excluded from school entirely. To bar him from the one phase of the curriculum which he does do well in is both illogical and pointless. Dr. Robinson's article deserves to be considered not only by school administrators but by state athletic associations which prescribe a minimum scholastic eligibility requirement.

THE RE-EDUCATION OF GERMANY

Since the re-education programs in Germany and Japan constitute one of the most interesting and significant experiments in modern educational history, any authoritative report on their progress is newsworthy. Charles W. Meister provided an excellent summary of the first year of the program in Germany in an article in the Fall issue of *The Harvard Educational Review*. Mr. Meister was the assistant to the American representative on the Allied Kommandatura Education Committee (AKEC) which had jurisdiction over all Berlin schools, religious affairs, libraries, sports, and youth organizations. His report indicates some of

the difficulties that were encountered. Most of these resulted from the conflict of three ideologies: the democratic policies of the Western powers; the communistic and imperialistic program of the USSR; and the fascistic, authoritarian outlook of the traditional German educator. Conflicts of authority and interpretation were frequent and usually resulted in a weakening of German respect for the wisdom and solidarity of the Allies.

Curriculum changes were among the most important reforms needed in Berlin. History teaching was abolished entirely for the fall term of 1945, until enough teachers could be trained who would be capable of presenting it in an objective and unbiased manner. Geography was limited to physical geography, with no overtones of military strategy or geopolitics. Biology courses included material specifically showing the falsity of the Nazi racial doctrines.

Courses were introduced in the elementary school on the culture and civilization of each of the four Allied powers, and modern international literature was added to courses in German literature in the secondary school. Gymnastics were given a reduced place in the curriculum, orders issued that they should not be permitted to resemble military training in any way. Religious education was one of the most controversial points. The great majority of Berlin people wanted religion included as a regular school subject as it had been under the Weimar Republic. Since the British, French and American policy was to concur in public opinion wherever feasible, their representatives on the AKEC supported this plan. The Russians, however, held that religious teaching was a matter for the churches and should not be given in the schools. The problem was finally turned over to the Allied High Command which directed that religion should be an elective subject for those children whose parents asked for it in writing. This was a compromise solution with which no one was wholly satisfied.

Educational personnel was another fruitful field of controversy and difference of outlook among the Allied powers. The American policy was to exclude in its sector all teachers and administrators who could be shown to have been active Nazis. The Russians tended to ignore the past and employ any persons who

seemed to them to be useful for the future. Hence many former Nazis who were banned in the American zone were given positions in the schools in the Russian sector. This difference in policy created strong antagonism against the Americans among the people of Berlin, for they felt that we were unwilling to give a person another chance, while the Russians were. The feeling was especially strong and perhaps justified in the case of young people who were eager to embark on teaching careers and were barred by the Americans because they had participated as children in some of the Hitler Youth programs.

Mr. Meister's interesting report describes many other problems which have arisen under the divided authority in Berlin. Textbooks, teacher training, adult education, the control of the University of Berlin, and teachers' unions are among the other topics he discusses. In his summary of basic difficulties he says:

Although a chasm has developed between the Russian authorities and the Western authorities during the course of the past year in Berlin, this chasm is due more to Russian obstinacy than to German skulduggery. Initially the Western members of the Allied Kommandatura bent over backwards in diplomatic gestures toward Allied unity, but the Russians simply exploited every opening given them for the maximum political advantage, and practically never reciprocated by conceding points of policy to the other Allies. As the months went by, the western Allies stiffened to the point of acting nearly as independently as the Russians, so that four-power government in Berlin is farther from being an actuality today than it was when the western Allies joined Russia there. The only genuine hope for the future seems to be that Russia will alter her "lone wolf" policy as she sees that four can play the same game as one.

THE PROBLEM OF TRUANCY

Truancy is an immemorial feature of education. Since the days of Huck Finn and no doubt much earlier, American youth has indulged itself in the adventure of "hooking school." Russell J. Fornwalt of the New York City Big Brother Movement contributed an article on truancy to the February issue of

The School Review in which he charges teachers with indifference toward the problem. He claims that that most teachers look on truancy as a legal matter and feel that their responsibility ends when they have reported the absence to the school authorities. They rarely go further and try to discover if the truancy is due to any fault of their own. It is indeed Mr. Fornwalt's belief that the majority of illegal absences is actually caused by a dislike of school generated by an injustice or humiliation put upon the pupil by a teacher. On the basis of his work with "problem" boys in New York, he concludes that teacher-pupil personality conflicts are the principal cause of truancy, and that "external factors seem to be either secondary or superficial and serve merely as convenient alibis for those teachers and principals who do not, or will not, face the problem frankly."

It seems to the present writer that Mr. Fornwalt has been misled by taking too narrow a view of the whole picture and by placing undue reliance and emphasis on a comparatively few "horror stories" of boys who have been victims of unreasonable and psychopathic teachers. In the first place, the examples he cites of specific cases are so far removed from ordinary teacher practice as to make their worth as evidence useless. A teacher conducts an open straw vote before a political election and roundly abuses the pupils who vote against the teacher's own choice; a teacher gives her class a very strong hint that she is not going to take attendance that afternoon, thus encouraging truancy; a teacher strikes a pupil across the mouth with a ruler several times for laughing at another pupil who was being made ridiculous. There is no doubt that such things do occur, but they are so infrequent that they cannot possibly account for the number of truantries, or even a small portion of them.

Mr. Fornwalt makes a point of the fact, unquestionably true, that truancy is increasing. This in itself shows that the real causes lie outside the school in most cases, for it certainly cannot be shown that there has been a corresponding increase in the number of sadistic and brutal teachers. On the other hand, it is common knowledge that there has been a vast increase in the number of broken or unsettled homes—homes where one or both parents have

abandoned their responsibility for the child's welfare, or where both parents are employed and leave the child to his own devices. In the writer's own experience a very high percentage of all truantries occur in cases where there is clearly a deficiency in the home. A lack of proper parental supervision, family loyalty, good moral tone, adult interest in the child's educational progress, strong character training—one or more of these weaknesses is almost always glaringly obvious in the family background of habitual truants.

Mr. Fornwalt correctly assumes that most truantries are caused by a pupil's desire to get away from something rather than to anything in particular; the truant seldom has a specific objective he wishes to achieve. But it is not a particular teacher's evil personality which the truant is usually trying to escape, as Mr. Fornwalt charges. He is simply following the natural line of least resistance made possible by a lack of good home training; he is seeking to escape work and routine which he does not wish to face. Going to school requires effort, purpose, energy and self-discipline. These are not native attributes of every child, and when they are not supplied by positive training at home, there is little further incentive needed for truancy.

There is no doubt that better school guidance counselling can reduce the amount of truancy and that the schools must make much greater efforts in this direction. Particularly they have the responsibility of improving their curricula to meet more closely the interests of non-academic students. But surely it obscures the real causes of truancy and juvenile delinquency to say that the pupil who avoids school does so to escape the teacher's personality. He is simply avoiding responsibility and effort as his parents have done.

Further support of the latter opinion comes from an article by Samuel Turchin in *High Points* for February. The author was put in charge of a special section of twenty-nine boys who had been habitual truants from a New York City vocational high school. He found that thirteen of them lived in undesirable areas, eleven had but one parent, two others had step-fathers, and the parents of three more were both employed. One of them had three brothers

in penal institutions. Even after these boys were put in a group where they received unusually sympathetic and understanding treatment, only three showed marked improvement in attendance, and the median attendance of the whole group was only 52 per cent. In none of the cases was there any evidence of ill-treatment at school as a cause of truancy; invariably the basis lay in home and economic factors.

NOTES

Teachers who find themselves underpaid and overburdened with extracurricular and civic duties will enjoy reading the article by Pearl W. Fickett in *The Teachers' Digest* for February. Mrs. Fickett's complaint is not so much against the salary of \$1,000 a year she receives (when not ill) as against the apparently unlimited quantity and variety of "activities" she is required to oversee. She feels that she would like to devote some of her energy to the seven or eight classes a day she has to meet. Her story is amusing and almost incredible to anyone who has not taught in a small high school in a small town.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Carnegie Corporation of New York are jointly undertaking a comprehensive study of the academic achievements of veterans in college. The purpose is to obtain authoritative information on the influence of age, marital status, military experience and other factors on college achievement, and the effects of the G.I. Bill in enabling good students to get a college education which they would not otherwise have had.

The third Summer Institute on the United States in World Affairs will be conducted by The American University in Washington, D. C., from June 16 to July 25. In addition to sixty lecture and discussion sessions by various authorities in the field of world problems, there will be visits to Congress, embassies, agencies and government departments. Teachers may enroll either as graduate students for credits or as auditors by applying to Walter E. Myer, Director, Institute on the United States in World Affairs, 1733 K Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

The fifth annual Religious Book Week sponsored by the National Conference of Christians

and Jews is being observed nationally May 4-11. The Religious Book List, a 36-page pamphlet listing books for adults and children in four sections—Jewish, Protestant, Catholic and Goodwill—may be obtained without cost from the National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 Fourth Ave., New York 16, N. Y.

Valedictorians or highest honor students graduating from high schools are eligible for the 1947 Annual Award for Scholastic Achievement, just announced for the eleventh successive year by *The Reader's Digest*. The award is offered to the leading graduating student in each public, private or parochial high school in both the United States and Canada. It consists of a free, one-year subscription to *The Reader's Digest*, starting with the July issue. An engraved certificate of award, "in recognition of past accomplishment and in anticipation of unusual achievement to come," will be sent for presentation to each selected student at commencement. Valedictorians in 30,000 high schools are eligible for this honorary subscription, which has been offered yearly since 1937 as a stimulus to self-education and an incentive to thoughtful citizenship. Part of *The Reader's Digest's* educational program, the award is a logical outgrowth of the wide use of that magazine throughout schools in the United States and Canada. To obtain the award for their students, principals or superintendents should write on official stationery, giving the full name and address of the student and his school, and the date of commencement. Requests should be addressed to the Valedictorian Department, *The Reader's Digest*, Pleasantville, New York.

The University of Southern California announces its second summer Workshop in Inter-cultural Education from June 23 to August 1, 1947. The staff will include Dr. Harvey S. Locke, sociologist; Dr. Tanner G. Duckrey, Negro educator, Philadelphia Public Schools; Mrs. Sybil Richardson, psychologist, Los Angeles County Schools; Mrs. Afton Nance, supervisor, Riverside County Schools; Mrs. Beatrice Krone, music education; Dr. Glen Lukens, art education, The University of Southern California. Mrs. Jane Hood, coordinator, Los Angeles City Public Schools and The University of Southern California, will direct

the Workshop. The Workshop carries six units of graduate credit, and includes a lecture series, Sociology 192, entitled *Racial and Cultural Tensions in America*. The Workshop activities will center about the individual and group problems of the members. Resource leaders from the university staff and the community will serve when needed. There will be continuous exploration of problems in group relations with emphasis on the means which may be used by leaders in this field for arranging conditions to promote individual growth and group endeavor. Only through early application can the staff provide maximum assistance to each individual member. Membership in the Workshop is limited to forty. Application should be made to Mrs. Jane Hood, School of Education, The University of Southern California, Los Angeles 7, California, not later than May 15.

The seventh annual conference for teachers of the social sciences in secondary schools and junior colleges will be held July 23, 24, and 25, 1947. The theme will be "The Task of the Social Sciences in General Education." Programs may be obtained from Earl S. Johnson, Box 51, 1126 East Fifty-ninth Street, Chicago 37, Illinois.

A Workshop in Labor and Industrial Re-

lations for social studies teachers and others who are interested will be conducted at the University of Illinois from June 15 to July 3, 1947, under the auspices of the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations. At least part of the Workshop will be conducted in Chicago. Participants will visit industries, attend labor meetings, and meet with representatives of management and labor. In this way members of the Workshop will acquire first-hand knowledge of the problems, procedures, and techniques involved in labor and industrial relations. One of the major activities of the Workshop will be the preparation of resource units in this area of the social studies. The personnel of the Workshop will be composed of leaders in education, economics, labor relations, and prominent representatives of labor and management. The registration fee is \$25 and the cost, exclusive of personal expenses and travel, will be about \$100 per person. The University of Illinois will grant three hours credit on completion of the work. The number of participants will be limited. Applications must be made to the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois as soon as possible, but not later than June 1.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by IRA KREIDER

Abington High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

Civics for Youth. By James B. Edmonson, Arthur Dondineau and Mildred C. Letton. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1946. Pp. 405. Illustrated. \$1.88.

The authors of this book have successfully written a book for use in the junior high school. From their experience in working with materials for younger students of the secondary school, they present twenty-five chapters, each one of vital interest to youth.

The book itself is divided into five parts. These are: Part I, Your Relations with Others; Part II, Working Together as Citizens; Part III, The Machinery of Government; Part IV, How We Satisfy Our Needs; and Part V,

Looking Ahead.

The book covers our local, state and national governments. Government is treated as part of the life of students, of concern to students, and not to adults only. Many illustrations are drawn from the immediate experiences and environment of pupils.

Up-to-date pictures, charts, and graphs have been selected to illustrate the text. Questions are placed at the end of each chapter which assist the student in the formulation of his concepts. The vocabulary used is suitable for junior high school, and definitions of terms are given whenever needed. The text, too, is written in an informal and simple manner.

For teachers, too, the book will prove quite useful. It has been organized in such a fashion that it may be adapted to any method of teaching, or a variety of methods. It does foster the individual desires of teachers.

This is one of the first texts that does give youth a direct hand in their own citizenship training. They are given an opportunity to work out, in part, their own civic education through appropriate activities. Social science teachers interested in a practical illustration of citizenship training will find this text of excellent value.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Graham Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

Zachary Taylor. By Brainerd Dyer. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1946. Pp. 455. \$4.00.

Mr Dyer, author of a biography of the great New York lawyer and statesman, William M. Evarts, and a professor of history at the University of California, has written a solid, careful biography of "Old Rough and Ready" Taylor, military leader, slave-holding Whig, and short-time President of the United States. It was the misfortune of the Whigs that their two successful candidates for the Presidency should both die in office, and that both should fall into the hands of unfriendly biographers.

Zachary Taylor was not the greatest military leader that we have ever had, and he was not a powerful figure in the White House. But neither was he so incompetent and so futile as some of his biographers have pretended. Mr. Dyer, whose volume is the ninth in the Southern Biography Series sponsored by the Louisiana State University Press, has done something to redress the balance. He portrays Taylor as an example of the American frontier figure, possessing initiative, courage, and ambition. He builds his volume largely on this frontier thesis, as he follows Taylor from Indian fighter, to planter, to acrimonious and often misunderstood military leadership, and to the White House. And in Zachary Taylor's life, his most recent biographer finds the threads of our entire Westward movement. He shows how the great issues that faced Taylor as President were concerned with the territories over which

he had fought as a soldier.

This is not a great biography, but it is a creditable one. Teachers of American history will find that it helps to fill one of the voids in our biographical literature. On the college level it should have a variety of uses; for the secondary school teacher its value will be less apparent.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

Columbia University
New York City

The Congress of Vienna; A Study in Allied Unity, 1812-1822. By Harold Nicholson. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1946. Pp. 312. \$4.00.

In these days of bewilderment, of questionings as to the strength of the United Nations, of doubts and fears about the intentions of Russia, of a paralyzing uncertainty as to what is right and what is wise, it will do no one any harm to read of the doubts and uncertainties, the problems and the accomplishments, of another age of peacemakers. Mr. Nicholson is primarily concerned with the parallel problems facing the peacemakers in 1815 and 1946, particularly with the relations of Britain and Russia to the disposition of the Central European situation. His book has been criticized by some for its attention to parallel situations, and for its attempt to use the Past as a guide to the Present.

Regardless of the attitude of the historical scholars toward this method of synthesising history, those concerned with teaching, whether on the college or the secondary school level, should rejoice at the availability of such a volume. European history has suffered from a scarcity of good descriptive and narrative materials suitable for use in our schools. Particularly has this been true from the standpoint of biography. Mr. Nicholson has written brilliantly of one of the more colorful, as well as more important, periods in European and World history. He has given us a wide variety of biographical materials. This is, therefore, a book of very real importance to the teacher, and to the school or college library.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

Columbia University
New York City

Saudi Arabia. By K. S. Twitchell. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1947. Pp. xiii, 192. Illustrated. \$2.50.

Saudi Arabia, which has changed relatively little since the days of Mohammed, is beginning to emerge into the modern world. Recent events have focussed American attention and interest on this little-known nation: the discovery of vast new deposits of oil in what may prove to be "the second greatest oil reserve in the world today"; the unswerving loyalty to the Allies during World War II of the architect of modern Saudi Arabia, King Ibn Saud, who "ranks among the foremost figures of the age"; the distinguished role of the colorfully-clad Saudi Arabian delegates at the San Francisco Conference and at meetings of the United Nations; the importance of Ibn Saud as spokesman for the Arab bloc on the Palestine problem; the current visit of Crown Prince Saud to the United States.

This attractive little volume contains background information about Saudi Arabia which every American should know. Written by an American mining engineer who probably has a more intimate knowledge of King Ibn Saud and his country than any other person in the United States, the book describes in simple, direct fashion the characteristic features of Saudi Arabia, its social and political development under the rising star of Ibn Saud, and its place in the world economy. The account is illustrated by photographs taken by the author during his travels in Saudi Arabia, and many (but not all) of the unfamiliar place-names which are mentioned in bewildering detail are shown on an accompanying map.

As an engineer in the employ of the Saudi Arabian government for several years, as chief of the American Agricultural Mission to that country in 1942-1943, and as a key figure in the formation of the two concessionaire companies, the Arabian American Oil Company and the Saudi Arabian Mining Syndicate, the author is particularly well qualified to comment on the oil reserves, the mining opportunities, the water supply, the agricultural possibilities, and the transportation and communication needs of this ancient land. He shows that King Ibn Saud is actively interested in developing his country by modern techniques in every way,

and is seeking closer relations with the western world, particularly with the United States. The government of Saudi Arabia, under Ibn Saud, "though outwardly autocratic in several respects, . . . is patriarchal and shows certain attributes of democracy." In these pages Ibn Saud hardly emerges as a flesh-and-blood individual, although much light is thrown on his fascinating personality.

In reading this excellent study, which is primarily concerned with the material factors in the development of Saudi Arabia, it is well to remember that in the heart of Islam, with its great shrines sacred to the Prophet at Mecca and Medina, and with many of its isolated peoples steeped in the fanaticism of centuries, "the affairs of the spirit," to use the words of Colonel Gerald de Gaury, have always been of transcendent importance and "will play a large part in events to come in Saudi Arabia."

NORMAN D. PALMER

Colby College
Waterville, Maine

Thunder Out of China. By Theodore H. White and Annalee Jacoby. New York: William Sloane Associates. Pp. xvi, 331. \$3.00.

Five years ago we were being frequently reminded by many writers that World War II was more than an international conflict, that it was also a social revolution, a democratic upheaval in all parts of the world. *Thunder Out of China* is an able documentation of this phase of the war in China, which, the authors take pains to point out, has not ended yet. "Peace did not follow victory. All through Asia men continue to kill each other; they continue to do so today and will be doing so for a long time to come."

The book is well up to the high standard set by other *Time* reporters in its scholarly, long-view journalism, clothed in a distinctly creditable literary style.

The three major contributions of this volume are the political-military history of China under Chiang, the appraisal of the opposing National government and Communist forces today, and the assessment (almost an indictment) of recent United States policy in China.

With the very readable and convincing analysis of the position of the peasant in

Chinese life, and of the early stages of the revolution, there will be little argument. The last part of the book, dealing with the present and the immediate past relations of the various factions within the sprawling Republic and the relations of the United States to this continuing civil strife, can constitute no more than one more contribution, and far from a final solution, to the perplexing problem of how order can be brought out of chaos in the most populous of the Big Five nations.

White and Jacoby are convinced that the present revolutionary movement in China is inevitable and unstoppable, and that being so, American policy should attempt to achieve three goals, namely:

1. That the revolution, when successful, should regard America as a friendly state.
2. That it should be achieved with a minimum of violence and bloodshed.
3. That it should always preserve minority rights.

They proceed to suggest three possible courses of action for us. First suggested and quickly discarded is the possibility of continued unconditional support of Chiang Kai-shek, a policy which the authors believe might soon lead to a divided China, a Soviet-supported northern section and an American-supported Kuomintang government in South China. Just as quickly rejected is the second course, the hands-off or isolationist policy which so many believe is portended by the recent withdrawal of our forces in China. The terrifying prospect if this course were followed is of a completely Communist dominated China—or all Asia.

The answer proposed as "the only practical policy for us to pursue is the encouragement of a multi-party government in China that will be the vehicle for the changes the land needs." The implication is clear between the lines that one of the *musts* for the accomplishment of such a policy is the elimination of the extremists in both the government and the Communist leadership. Not implied, but clearly stated, is the other *must*, early understanding between the United States and Russia.

News reports each week continue to bring us rumblings of the thunder out of China. This volume presents the background that can make those rumblings understandable, especially the

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*Kenan Professor of Sociology,
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background of emphasis on a China that was hurtled by the war from the Middle Ages to the twentieth century. What China is going through now Western Europe endured through all the wars and revolutions of the past five centuries. Such great change in such a short span of time cannot take place without disquieting frictions. Whatever influence we can bring to bear to restore some semblance of stability in China without intervention on our part will be a real contribution toward achieving the world peace we want. It will require the most astute judgment on the part of not only our State Department, but of our businessmen, newsmen, commentators, and authors as well. White and Jacoby have made their contribution.

DONALD W. ROBINSON

University of Tampa
Tampa, Florida

The Chrysanthemum and the Sword: Patterns of Japanese Culture. By Ruth Benedict. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1946. Pp. 324. \$3.00.

The Chrysanthemum and the Sword, in dealing with the Japanese character, touches on a subject of increasing importance to Americans. The future of Asia and perhaps of the world itself may depend on our handling correctly the Japanese problem within the next ten or fifteen years. We cannot properly handle this problem without making some attempt to understand the character of the Japanese people. This understanding is what the author tries to provide, and she has gone a long way in so doing.

Mrs. Benedict, through long years of experience as an anthropologist, is well fitted to do this work. She shows how our diplomacy before Pearl Harbor was handicapped by an imperfect knowledge of how the Japanese national mind worked. The firm belief of the Japanese in the principle of hierarchy and its moral worth ran head on into our equally firm egalitarian faith. The Japanese are further motivated by an almost overwhelming sense of indebtedness indoctrinated from childhood. This sense of indebtedness begins with the obligation or "on" one has received from the Emperor. Then, it goes on to the obligations

one owes to one's parents, one's teachers, etc. The Japanese has further obligations to his name and to his work. These obligations sometimes conflict with one another and cause deep-seated psychological conflicts.

Another thing that impressed the reviewer about the Japanese character was a curious lack of moral responsibility, in the Western or perhaps puritanical sense, in those spheres of life not governed by the feeling of indebtedness. The Japanese almost make an art of enjoying the life of the senses, but, at the same time, they do their utmost to subordinate these pleasures to what they consider the really important things in life. This breeds further inner conflicts.

The way in which the children are brought up is very important in determining the character of any race. The author has shown how the upbringing of the Japanese child is almost the reverse of that of the American child. As the young American grows up, he is freed progressively from external restraints until he reaches the prime of life. Then, as old age approaches, he becomes more dependent on others. That is, external restraints are applied again. In Japan the restraints are applied progressively as the child grows older and are once again removed gradually as old age approaches. The reviewer, at this point, takes mild issue with the author. It would seem that the American as he matures is freed from the restraints imposed by his parents, but as parental restriction is removed, does not his behavior become increasingly restrained by the pressure of society? It is admitted, however, that this pressure is probably far greater on the individual Japanese.

Finally, the author points out how this oppressive feeling of indebtedness makes the Japanese unwilling to give or to receive an addition to this burden. The addition will be received with a feeling of resentment rather than of gratitude. Hence, the Japanese crowd at an automobile accident will not offer help for fear the victim will resent this addition to his onerous burden of indebtedness.

The homely points about family life make this book interesting to the reader. At times, however, the average reader will have difficulty in following some of the finer points. As a

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whole, the book is most enlightening on a little-known subject, and one of great importance.

In the last chapter, the author points out that the amazing success of our occupation policy in Japan is in large measure due to our decision to keep the Emperor. Repaying one's indebtedness to the Emperor involved dying to the last man if he decreed war. When the Emperor decreed peace, it meant a peaceful welcome to the conquerors. The complete failure of militarism and the resulting reprobation it brought on the good name of Japan has now set her out to win the approbation of the world by success at peaceful pursuits. It is thus that we can hold down ninety million people with an occupation force of just under two hundred thousand men.

The continued success of our occupation policy depends on a continued understanding of the Japanese character. The Japanese are an energetic and adaptable people, and our success in guiding them along the right paths may determine the whole future of Asia and perhaps of the world itself. Soviet intrigues in Asia are too well known to need discussion

here. Mrs. Benedict has provided us with an important guidebook towards the much needed understanding of the Japanese.

WILFRED T. GRENFELL

St. James School
St. James, Maryland

As We Were: Family Life in America, 1850-1900. By Bellamy Partridge and Otto Bettmann. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1946. Pictures and text, Pp. 184. \$4.50.

This is the story of American society from the middle of the nineteenth century to its close, told in pictures and text. The text is by Bellamy Partridge, author of *Country Lawyer*; the prints are from the Bettman Archive. The collaborators have succeeded in recapturing much of the atmosphere of the period which began during the troubled years before the Civil War and ended with the revolutionary advent of the automobile.

The book presents an excellent and clear interpretation of a significant and colorful period of American history.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

What Do You Know about Blindness? By Herbert Yahraes. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 124. New York City: Public Affairs Committee, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

Tactfully teaching common courtesy to the blind, the writer points out that they want to be treated like human beings and that their abilities, not their disabilities, should be emphasized. The opportunities of the blind are limited not so much by their handicap as by the attitude of seeing people.

The booklet concludes with ten "do's and don'ts" on how to behave when with blind persons.

Rheumatic Fever—Childhood's Greatest Enemy. By Herbert Yahraes. Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 126. New York City: Public Affairs Committee, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. 32. 10 cents.

Containing all the essential facts concerning rheumatic fever, this pamphlet was prepared in cooperation with the American Council on Rheumatic Fever of the American Heart Association to provide needed public information on heart disease, the greatest cause of death in the United States.

Many different services are needed by the average rheumatic fever sufferer and ideally they should be available in every community. As an example of a successful community plan, the pamphlet describes the London County Council's Rheumatism Scheme which was initiated in 1926.

A Housing Program for America. By Charles Abrams. New York: League for Industrial Democracy, 1947. Pp. 32. 25 cents.

In this pamphlet, the author summarizes his book, *The Future of Housing*, and elaborates his recent articles published in *The Nation*. Urging the support of the Wagner-Ellender-Taft Bill, he presents a comprehensive ten-point program for providing decent homes for all Americans through public, cooperative, and private enterprise.

Group Work—Case Work Cooperation. Sponsored by the American Association of Group Workers. New York: Association Press, 1946. Pp. 49. 50 cents.

As a guide for social service workers, this series of articles, originally published in *The Jewish Center*, illustrates the relationship between group-work and case-work agencies and the lessons derived from both.

The Story of a Discussion Program. By Joseph Cahn, Eduard O. Lindeman, Albert N. Mayers, Shirley Star, and Others. Edited by Alice Ballaine and Winifred Fisher. New York: New York Adult Educational Council, 1946. Pp. 94. Single copy \$1.00. Lot prices.

Discussion is employed as a method to educate civilians and veterans for good citizenship. The discussion program is explained from various standpoints, including those of the director and the psychiatrist. The Appendix, which is longer than the pamphlet proper, includes topic outlines, bibliographies, audio-visual aids, the radio program, the questionnaire and administrative forms.

Jobs and Small Businesses. By Edward A. Kotite. With a Foreword by Lawrence F. Ashley. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1947. Illustrated. Pp. ii, 128. \$1.00.

This vocational guidance text includes a job directory in which are listed 146 types of positions with code numbers showing where to apply for each. The author describes employment possibilities and job requirements in nine divisions of industry.

A four-page chart lists types of small businesses and shows the investment needed for each, the competitive factors involved, the experience and personality required for successful operation, and other pertinent data.

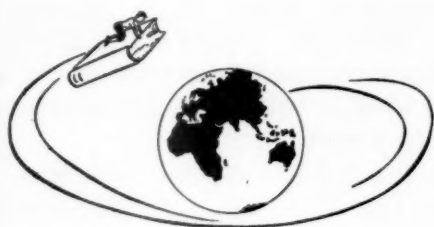
CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

American History. By Howard E. Wilson and Wallace E. Lamb. New York: American Book Company, 1947. Pp. xii, 594, liv. Illustrated. \$2.40.

A textbook for the junior high school.

A Cultural History of Education. By R. Freeman Butts. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1947. Pp. ix, 726. \$4.00.

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